

The Forms and Functions of Negation in Sesotho

BY

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DECLARATION

I, **Aaron Mpho Masowa**, declare that the Master's Degree research that I herewith submit for the Magister Atrium (African Languages) at the University of the Free State is my own independent work, and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education.

Signature

Date

ABSTRACT

The central aim of this research is to find out as to whether the three negative morphemes /ha/, /sa/ and /se/ and one negative word /tjhe/, can perform different functions of negation as stipulated by Schaefer and Masgbor (1984) in the Ibie language. This research will argue that these Sesotho negative categories can perform such functions.

The investigation of the functions of negation will be conducted within the psycholinguistic framework of Bloom (1970) while various forms of negation will be investigated within the Generative approaches, and in particular, Beard's (1995) Lexeme-morpheme based morphology, and the Principles and Parameters theory will be employed to examine the distribution of these morphemes.

The following negative morphemes expressing various functions such as non-existence, rejection, denial and prohibition will be explored within copulative verbs and non copulative verbs: i) non-existence morphemes, ii) rejection morphemes, iii) denial morphemes, iv) prohibition morphemes and the negative word which will be referred to as v) the expressive negative word.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1. Information background

In Sesotho, the research studies examining the syntax of negative sentence constructions have been done from Generative approaches within Chomsky's (1966) Minimalist Programme. According to the Minimalist Programme, language consists of a lexicon and the computational system where operations Merge and Move generates sets of structural descriptions. It is driven by the principle of Economy, which entails that movement should take place only when necessary for the purpose of case checking. This theory is also concerned with the expansion of syntactic structures in terms of X-bar theoretic properties, where functional categories are given full categorial status.

According to Malete (2001), within this framework, Sesotho sentence constructions which realize negation by means of negative morphemes, over a full range of tense, aspect and mood were exemplified. Research has found out that Sesotho negative clauses have a functional projection called Negative Phrase, which has the negative morphemes /ha/, /sa/, and /se/ as heads.

Research further considered the distribution and the morphology of negation in Sesotho, where Sesotho data was refined within Beard's (1995) Lexeme-Based Morphology. The morphology of Sesotho negative morphemes was examined within non-copulative verbs, copulative verbs, deficient verbs and aspect morphemes. It is observed that all three negative morphemes co-occur with the negative suffix /-e/, and that the deficient /ka/ is employed by all three in compound tenses, where /ka/ also takes the suffix /-e/ and becomes /ke/.

Constituent negation had also been examined with regard to NP subjects, NP objects and adjuncts. In this case it is observed that Sesotho does not have negative words but employs negative clauses to negate a syntactic constituent. It employs cleft sentences, sentences with agreement morpheme /ho/ and sentences with subject inversion. Further more, contrastive negation is necessary to isolate and consolidate constituent negation.

The issue of Topic and Focus was examined within Erteschik-shir (1997)'s Focus Structure theory which assigns negative sentences two focus structures viz., main focus structure and the subordinate focus structure. In Sesotho the negative morphemes /ha/, /sa/ and /se/ are

the main foci, the verbs which are negated are referred to as sub-foci. Finally research also considered the scope of negation within the framework of Haegeman (1995)'s Neg-Criterion, which stipulates that there are various positions of negative morpheme that determine the scope of negation.

The interrelationship between forms of negation and their functions have not been explored from Generative approaches in Sesotho. Four distinct morphological forms are identified in Sesotho as /ha/, /sa/, /se/ and the negative word /tjhe/.

1.2. Research problem and objectives

In Sesotho research study examining the syntax of negative sentence construction has been done from Generative approach within Chomsky's (1966) Minimalist Programme. Within this framework, Sesotho sentence constructions which realize negation by means of negative morphemes, over a full range of tense, aspect and mood were exemplified. This research found out that Sesotho negative clauses have a functional projection called Negative Phrase, which has the negative morphemes /ha/, /sa/, and /se/ as heads. However, the interrelationship between forms of negation and their functions has not been explored from the psycholinguistic perspective in Sesotho. Four distinct morphological forms are identified in Sesotho as /ha/, /sa/, /se/ and the negative word /tjhe/.

1.3. The aim of study

The central aim of this research is to find out as to whether this three negative morphemes and one negative word, can perform different functions of negation as stipulated by Schaefer and Masgbor (1984) in the Ibie language. This research will argue that these Sesotho negative categories can perform such functions. The investigation of the functions of negation will be conducted within the psycholinguistic framework of Bloom (1970) while various forms of negation will be investigated within the Generative approaches, and in particular, Beard's (1995) Lexeme-morpheme based morphology, and the Principles and Parameters theory will be employed to examine the distribution of these morphemes.

The following negative morphemes expressing various functions such non-existence, rejection, denial and prohibition will be explored within copulative verbs and none copulative verbs: i) non-existence morphemes, ii) rejection morphemes, iii) denial morphemes, iv)

prohibition morphemes and the negative word which will be referred to as v) expressive negative word.

1.4. Research design and methodology

This research study will make use of secondary research methodology, where books, articles from journals, dissertations will be consulted. It will also to a less extent employ primary research methodology where, some examples of Sesotho sentences will be tested for grammaticality, acceptability or ungrammaticality with native speakers.

1.5. Value of research

The interrelationship between forms of negation and their functions have not been explored from psycholinguistic approach in Sesotho. Four distinct morphological forms are identified in Sesotho as /ha/, /sa/, /se/ and /tjhe/. This research will bring about new interpretation of the negative expressive in Sesotho, where it is employed to express abundance instead of denial or prohibition. It will also fill the knowledge gap identified as not been investigated for Sesotho language in particular but it will also be of benefit to other South African languages as well.

1.6. Organisation of study

The research will be divided into five chapters, where chapter 1 will serve as an introduction; chapter 2 will be dedicated to literature review, to provide information with regard to studies done on negation, types of morphemes, functional categories of morphemes; chapter 3 will give theoretical approaches to morphology in general and to African languages; chapter 4 will deal with Sesotho negative sentences that realizes rejection, denial, prohibition, non-existence and expressive connotations over a range of both copulative and none copulative verbs; and chapter 5 will be the summary conclusion, which will give both the summary and the findings.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

This chapter reviews literature by different authors based on empirical data as well as data based specifically on African literature by African authors regarding negation and its functions with regard to the application of psycholinguistics theory.

2.1. Empirical data on negation

2.1.1. Based on authors

2.1.1.1. www.merriam-webster.com

According to www.merriam-webster.com negation is a statement, judgement or doctrine especially a logical proposition formed by asserting the falsity of a given proposition.

2.1.1.2. Lyons (1932)

Lyons (1932) seems to agree with what is said by www.merriam-webster.com when he says negation creates a composite proposition ($\sim p$) out of a simple proposition (p) and where $\sim p$ is defined to be true when p is false when p is true. Negation symbolised by this sign ' \sim ' is regarded by logicians as an operation which forms a composite proposition ($\sim p$) out of simple proposition (p). As far as standard, two-valued, propositional logic is concerned, the truth-functional definition of negation is straightforward, whenever p is true, $\sim p$ is false and whenever p is false $\sim p$ is true. It is further allowed that negation should be recursive, so that the negation of $\sim p$, yield $\sim\sim p$, which is equivalent to p (two negatives make a positive), the negation of $\sim\sim p$ yield $\sim\sim\sim p$, which is equivalent to $\sim p$, and so on.

2.1.1.3. Kate (2000)

Kate (2000) come up with the negation table and further says negation is generally included with the logical connectives because it is truth-functional, being defined by a truth table.

Simply, negation combines with single proposition to reverse its truth value. The symbol for negation is \sim , and truth table for negation is $P \sim p$ as indicated in figure (1) below:

(1)	TF truth-false
	FT false-truth

Negation is expressed in several ways in English, most commonly by /not/ or /n't/ after the first auxiliary verb. If **p** represent the proposition expressed by "Thabo left", then $\sim p$ these is expressed by "Thabo didn't leave". If "Thabo left" is true, then "Thabo didn't leave" is false, and if "Thabo didn't leave" is true, then "Thabo left" is false. This analysis of truth table by Kate (2000) concur with what is explained by Lyons (1932) when he say whenever p is true, $\sim p$ is false and whenever p is false $\sim p$ is true.

2.1.1.4. Dahl (1993)

After considering all this by Kate (2000) and Lyons (1932), Dahl (1993) further says one of the few linguistic phenomena which seem to be universal in a very straightforward sense is negation whereby he says all human languages have means to overtly "deny the truth of a proposition". So not surprisingly, negation is one of the topics which have attracted much interest in recent linguistics from various perspectives.

Furthermore the semantics and syntax of sentence negation and especially the phenomenon called negative concord has been widely studied in the nineties.

2.1.1.5. Zanuttini (1997)

Zanuttini (1997) further says it is known that in many languages as diverse as Chinese and Italian, negation can function as a question marker.

2.1.1.6. Brown and Bellugi(1964), Klima and Bellugi (1966) and Bellugi (1967)

Brown and Bellugi (1964), Klima and Bellugi (1966) and Bellugi (1967) have observed that the early negative sentences of English child language take the form of a negative element followed by the sentence nucleus as said by Otto (1922) and others in their research. Here are some noted examples from the three children she studied in examples from Bellugi (1967) data as indicated in (1a) and (1b) below:

- (1a) Not have coffee
- b) No the sun shining

Absent from early stage, according to Klima and Bellugi (1966), are utterances in which the negative element occurs sentence-medially. Whereas subject NPs are often dropped in early language, overt subject-when they do occur-are positioned to the right of the negative, as the sentence in (1) has shown.

2.1.1.7. Pollock (1989), Zanuttini (1989) and Kate (2000)

With regard to Pollock (1989), Zanuttini (1989) and Kate (2000) it is maintained that */pas/* is the French counterpart of English */not/* and German */nicht/*. As in English and German, the French marker of negation occurs below the projection of Inflectional and above verb phrase [VP]. It is assumed that the overt negative element occurs to the left of the VP. Pollock (1989) has proposed that the negation projection in French is comprised of a head */ne/*, realised even when empty, and a specifier */pas/*, which must be overtly represented. Supporting what Pollock (1989) is saying Zanuttini (1989) has also proposed that */ne/* is the head of negation phrase [NegP] but argues that */pas/* is a VP adjunct, as are */nicht/* and */not/*. While remaining uncommitted with respect to the precise formulation of NegP, it is assumed that the relevant negatives occur in a non-head position to the left of the VP, and that their position is fixed at S-Structure. During a relatively early stage, then, the child is expressing sentential negation with a construction that is never attested, with the intended meaning of denial or rejection, in the adult speech that serves as input.

2.1.2. Based on themes

2.1.2.1. Stages of negation

In concurring with Brown and Bellugi (1964), Blooms (1970) has identified three main functions for negation in her sample as denial, rejection and non-existence. This analysis was found useful by McNeill (1970) in his study of the development of negation in Japanese. This forms and functions come together in Wodes (1977) survey of studies of development of negation in several languages. He proposes three main stages in the development of negation. In the first stage, he says a child uses a negative morpheme on its own */no/*. He further says the second stage has two parts on it. In this stage a child combine a negative

element with another word, producing utterance at least two words long. In his final stage of development of child in negation he says it is characterised by the appearance of negative elements inside the child's utterance and also by the appearance of other negative morphemes such as /not/ or /nicht/.

Klima and Bellugi (1966) have proposed that children go through an initial stage in which sentential negation is 'external'. According to this proposal a sentence such as the now famous in (2) below:

(2) "/no/ the sun shining",

means the sun is /not/ shining, with the negative wrongly located in sentence-initial position. During stage 2 the negative moves inside the sentence to its adult position as indicated in (3) below:

(3) "I /no/ want envelope".

2.1.2.2. Seven groups of negation

Beside the stages which are being identified by Blooms (1970), Klima and Bellugi (1966) further says negation can be divided into seven groups which are not-negation, contracted negation, negative pronouns and determiners, other negative items, the grammatical behaviour of negative items, negations in phrases and non-finite clauses and transferred negation. Each of the negations are explained in details below and Douglass (2002) mention them as follows:

Not-negation: to negate a finite clause, you place /not/ immediately after the operator. If there is no auxiliary verb and the main verb is not the copula /be/, the auxiliary verb /do/ has to be inserted as dummy operator as in (4a) and (4b) below:

(4a) We are not coming tonight.

b) You can do this but you can't do that.

Contracted negation: As well as the contracted negative, English has contracted verb forms which can be tagged on to the subject. There are thus two forms of negation possible, one with a contracted verb, and one with a contracted negative as in (5):

(5) Contracted verb		Contracted negative
He's not coming	-	He isn't coming

Negative pronoun and determiners: In this case /No/ is servers as the negative determiner, and is one of a number of negative items in English with different functionsas in (6):

(6) None of them has arrived.

Other negative items: Other negative items beginning with -n- are : nowhere, never, neither or nor and also words that are negative in meaning and behaviour, although they do not appear negative in form: hardly, scarcely, barely, few, little, rarely, seldom.

The grammatical behaviour of negative items: The usual effect of all these negative items is to make the whole clause in which they occurs negatively. This means that certain characteristics of negative clauses are found not only with /not/, but also with other negative items. After a negative item, normally any words occur instead of some words. A negative item in the beginning of a clause brings about the inversion of subject and operator, and the order is operator + subject.

Negation in phrases and non-finite clauses: Sometimes the word /not/ is attached not to the verb phrase of a clause, but to another element of the clause, such as a noun phrase. /Not/ then comes before the word or a phrase which negates. There is no inversion when the negated noun phrase is itself subject as indicated in (7a) and (7b) below:

(7a) Not all the passengers have escaped from car accident.

So to negate non-finite clause, we place the negative before the verb phrase as indicated in (7b) .

b) I told them they are not allowed to be involved.

Transferred negation: After some verbs agree, think, a /not/ which belongs, in terms of meaning, to a that clause is usually transferred to the main clause as indicated in (8a), (8b) and (8c).

(8a) I don't believe that the two of you have met.

Applied verbs are made negative according to the now well known rule.

b) Woman do not grind maize meal for the family.

c) Dimpho did not tell me the truth.

2.1.2.3. Developmental stages of acquisition of negation

Cook (1993) further says the study of negation starts from the independent grammars assumption. Justifying that Milon (1974) looked at the Ken, a seven year old Japanese speaking boy learning English in Hawaii, over a period of six month, and wrote rules to capture the child's grammar at each stage. Klima and Bellugi (1966) had written an independent grammar for the development of negation in the first language, using rules of the form $A \rightarrow B \text{ and } C$ that is, phrase A consists of (\rightarrow) elements b and C, these are based on the rewriting formalism introduced into linguistics by Chomsky (1957). Milon (1974) therefore wrote a grammar for Ken at stage 1 to account for such sentences as in (9a) and (9b) below:

(9a) "/No/ my turn" and

b) /No/ more sister".

The grammar requires a single rule /not/, /no/, or /no more/.

From this, he aimed to drive a sequence of acquisition for negation that would be universal for L1 learning , for L2 learning, and for different languages. He established the following sequence:

Stage 1: *Anaphoric negation*. In the children's earliest sentences, such as in (10a) and (10b):

(10a) "Kenny no" and

b) "No my is the better one"

In this case /no/ stand for a whole sentence and so called anaphoric negation. It also occurs outside the structure of the sentence, and so is called external negation. Most studies find that the external anaphoric form, such as English /no/ or German /nein/, or Arabic /la/ is learnt before other forms.

Stage 2: *Non- anaphoric external negation*. At the next stage the children production sentences such as in (11a) and (11b):

- (11a) "No finish" and
- b) "No sleep"

In these the negative element is still external, but is part of the structure of the sentence in meaning rather than substituting for the structure of the sentence in meaning rather than substituting for the whole sentence, that is, it is non-anaphoric.

Stage 3: *Internal /be/ negation*. Next, the children produced sentences such as in (12a) and (12b):

- (12a) "That's no good" and
- b) "Lunch is no ready".

That is to say X /be/, /no/ or /not/ Y. /No/ and /not/ are now internal to the sentence, and are found chiefly with forms of the copula /be/, as in (12a) "That's no good".

Stage 4: *Internal full verb negation, and /don't/ imperative*. At the next stage, the children, placed the negative element /no/ and /not/ before or after full verbs, as in (13a) and (13b):

- (13a) " I'm not missed it".

They also produced imperative starting with /don't/, such as

- b) "Don't throw the rocks on Kitty.

The main structures are then subject verb negation X as in (13c) and (13d)

- c) "Birgit catch no fish"

and subject negation verb phrase as in d)

- d) "I not get away from Larsie.

The auxiliary /don't/ is restricted to imperatives learning than occurring in other contexts.

Stage 5: Suppletive non-imperative /do/. Finally, the children started saying sentences such as (14a) and (14b) below:

- (14a) “ I didn’t have a snag”, and
- b) “ I don’t saw the water”.

The full range of forms for /do/ support is found in sentences such as (15a) and (15b):

- (15a) “You didn’t can throw it” and
- b) ” They don’t last any game”.

2.1.2.4. Negative marker to express negation

Miestamo (2000) in his journal concurs with Otto (1922) when saying negation is an operator that reverses the truth value of a proposition. Thus, when p is true $not-p$ is false, and vice versa. He further says negation shows complex interaction with many aspects of meaning and structure. He says when looking at negation from a cross-linguistics perspective, we immediately sees that there is much more to it than just adding a negative marker to an affirmative sentence. In natural language negation is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon. He mentioned few types of negation which among others include syntactic negation, where in this case the negative marker can be an uninflected particle or can be particle by adding auxiliary to the clause and the finite verb of the affirmative is modified morphologically.

2.1.2.5. Negative strategies: Sentence negation and Constituent negation

Thomas (1939) says a negative clause is one which asserts that some event, situation, or state of affairs does not hold. Negative clauses usually occur in the context of some presupposition, functioning to negate or counter assert that presupposition. If I say as in (16) below:

- (16) “Joyce didn’t clean up the kitchen”.

I probably assume the addressee presupposes that Joyce did, or should have cleaned up the kitchen. In this case negative clauses are functionally similar to contractive clause and consequently negative and contractive focus clauses are often formally similar.

He further says most common negative strategies in any language are those used to negate an entire proposition. These we will describe as clausal negation as indicated in (17) below:

(17) “I didn’t do it”.

Other types of negation are associated with particular constituents of clauses. As in (18) below:

(18) “I have no apples”.

This will be referred to as constituent negation. Although the semantic effect of constituent negation is always less common as a grammatical device than clause negative.

2.1.2.6. Types of negation

This leads us to Thomas (1939) types of negation, which include among others Lexical negation, Morphological negation and Analytic negation. Each of those type are explained below:

2.1.2.6.1. Lexical negation.

It describes a situation in which the concept of negation is part and parcel of the lexical semantics of a particular verb. e.g. the verb *lack* in English can be thought of as the lexical negative of *have*. However, it is sometimes difficult to isolate a particular verb as the lexical negative of some other verb. e.g. *stand* the lexical negative of *sit*, of *lie* of *succumb* or are these just all distinct verb.

2.1.2.6.2. Morphological negation.

Morphemes that express clausal negation are normally, if not always, associated with the verb. Many languages e.g. “Farsi as illustrated in (19a) and (19b) employ a simple verbal prefix.

(19a) na-xor-am meaning ‘*I didn’t buy*’

b) na-mi-xar-am meaning ‘*I’m not buying*’

2.1.2.6.3. Analytic negation.

There are two kinds of analytic negation. Negative particles and finite negative verbs. Sometimes negative particles describe historically from negative verbs. Negative particles are normally associated with the main verb of the clause. However, they may also be clause-level clitics. Negative particles can be invariant such as the English /*not*/ and its allomorph /n't/. Look at the examples in (20a) and (20b) below:

(20a) Don't play.

b) He is not a fool.

2.1.2.7. Negation in natural language

Lyons (1932) says there are various ways in which negative sentences are constructed in natural languages. Only rarely, however, is there any reason to say that a negative sentence is grammatically composite by contrast with the corresponding positive, or affirmative, sentences. Generally speaking, corresponding sentences of opposite polarity have the same clause-structure, and what we can identify most easily with propositional negation applies within clausal and does not extend to whole sentence. Indeed, in many languages the negative polarity of a clause is marked not by means of a separate particle like in English /*not*/, but by special forms of the verb, or predicate. We sometimes have negated nominal expression occurring as clausal-constituents such as sentence (21a) indicate

(21a) "Non-student pay the full entrance fee"

expresses a proposition which differs from, and does not entail the proposition expressed by sentence (21b)

b) "Students do not pay the full entrance fee".

Nominal negation which is also called subject negation of this kind (non-student) like predicative negation which is also called verbal negation (do not pay), has an effect on the propositional content of the clause on which it occurs and is in principle truth-functional, but it cannot be readily formalized in standard propositional logic, "he may not come" can be interpreted, syntactically in two ways (and thus put into correspondence with two different

sentences, according to whether the negative /not/ has narrower or wider scope than the modal verb /may/ as indicated in (22a) and (22b) below:

- (22a). “It is possible that he will not come” in contrast with
b). “It is not possible/allowed that he will come”

cf. Haegeman (1996) further says there is a major distinction to be made between constituent (or local) negation and sentential (or clausal negation). Sentential negation typically involves negating the finite (non-lexical) verb, since this may be said to be link of the sentence, or the ‘nexus’ in Otto (1917) term. Constituent negation means that one of the constituent is negated without the results being a negative sentence as indicated in (23) below:

- (23) “Thabiso lives not far from here”.

Klima (1964), cited from Haegeman (1996) says although the sentence contains the negative element /not/, the sentence is not interpreted as negative: /not/ negates the constituent from here. This could be argued to be because the negative element follows the finite lexical verb and thus not have scope over the verb. However, even when the negated constituent precedes the finite verb, local negation is possible, as the following example in (24) illustrate.

- (24) In not many years will Christmas fall on Sunday.

According to Haegeman (1996), the contrast between sentential and constituent negation may be explain in terms of operators: “negative constituents which trigger inversion are operators and those that don’t trigger inversion are not”. In other words, sentential negation seems to require a negative operator.

Douglass (2002) further says negation is largely a feature of clauses and a clause is either positive or negative. The most common way of making a clause negative is to insert the negative particle /not/, or its contraction /n’t/ after the operator. There are actually two main kinds of clause negation: *not negation* and *no negation*. Whereas not-negation is formed with /not/ or /n’t/, and no-negation is as /no/, /nothing, and /none/ as indicated in (25) below:

- (25) “There’s nothing you can do about it”.

No-negation

Negation involving quantifiers can be expressed by negative words like /no/, or by a non-assertive word like /any/ as shown in table (1) below:

Negative words	Non-assertive words
Determiners: no, neither	Determiners: any, either
Adverbs: never, nor, nowhere	adverb: anywhere, ever
Pronoun: none, nobody	Pronoun: any, anybody

(Table (1) Examples of negation involving quantifiers)

Non-assertive words can occur after /not/, where they often provide a way of expressing the same meaning as no-negation. Look example (26) below:

(26) “They didn’t have any sympathy for him”.

When no-negation and not-negation are both possible, there is sometimes a slight difference of meaning.

2.1.2.8. Types of negative markers

On the other hand Payne (1985) observes four types of negative markers in the world’s languages which include amongst others morphological (affixal) negative, negative particles, negative verbs (negative auxiliaries and higher negative verbs) and negative nouns. Higher negative verbs are matrix verbs that a clausal complement. In Tongan, the negator /*ikai*/ acts as a higher verb taking the corresponding affirmative clause as its complement, the subjunctive marker /*ke*/ marks the complement clause as subordinate as indicated in (27a) and (27b) below:

(27a) “na’e ‘alu’a siale- *Siale went*”.

b) “na’e ‘ikai ke ‘alu ‘a siale- *Siale did not go*”.

Forest (1993) further makes a distinction between two main types of negation which are recusative negation and suspensive-reassertive negation. In recusative negation the negative utterance is divided into two parts, one whose function is limited to negative

marking, the other being strictly identical to an autonomous positive utterance. The positive counterpart of the negative utterance in question while in suspensive-reassertive negation, suspensivity means that one or several grammatical domains are marked differently from the way they are marked in positive, whereas reassertion refers to the indication that the utterance belongs to the declarative utterance type.

Frege (1919) cited by Horn follows Aristotle in observing that for ‘in every thought there is a contradictory thought’. But, contrary to what the surface syntax suggest, an entire sentence can be negated by combining a negative element, affix or particle, with a single constituent. As indicated in (28a) and (28b) below:

(28a) The man is not celebrated.

b) The man is uncelebrated.

This is supported by Bosanquet (1888) when saying everything which can be affirmed can also be denied and Kraak (1966) further say there is one negative sentence corresponding to every positive sentence and vice versa.

Ackrill (1963) cited in Horn suggest that affirmation may be first because negation is realized through the addition of a negative marker: ‘the negative presupposes, in that it involves adding something to, the affirmation’.

Zimmer (1964) and Funk (1971) says that negative affixation, especially when it involves the English prefixes /un/ and /in/ and their cross-linguistics analogues, admits or tend to develop a contrary, rather than merely contradictory, interpretation. Here is Jespersen’s statement of the generalization: The modification in sense brought about by the addition of the prefix /un/ is generally that of a simple negation: unworthy= ‘not worthy’

2.2. Data on African Languages

2.2.1. Data based on authors

2.2.1.1. Ziervogel (1977)

According to Ziervogel (1977) www.FizzyLogic.com quoted in above e-mail say Zulu verbs and non-verbal predicates shows how sentences in Zulu are negated. Here are some example of sentences and their analysis as indicated in (29a), (29b) and (29c) below:

(29a) A- ka- sa- cul-i ‘*She doesn’t sing anymore*’.

b) a- ka- se- khona- ‘*she’s not there anymore*’.

c) uma e- nge- cul- e ‘*if she can’t sing*’.

These three forms exhibit of inter-morphemic dependencies which are not phonological. Each of the words in (29) has a negative elements preceding the content morpheme, but only the forms (29a) and (29b) also have a negative element after the content morpheme. The forms (29a) and (29c) both have a final negation element, but in one form it’s /i/ and in the other it’s /e/.

Buell (2002) say looking at the internal finality which states that there are certain morphemes which can be treated consistently as final if head-hood is not presumed. Examples of these are the Zulu final negation morpheme /i/ in future forms and Swahili /o/ forms in synthetic relatives as indicated in (30a) and (30b) below:

(30a) Full and contracted forms of the Zulu immediate future tense

Negative

Contracted asizucula

Semi-contracted asizukucula

Full asiziyukucula

b) Swahili /o/ forms

Ni- na- cho ‘*I have it*’

Si- vyo ‘*It’s not like that*’

2.2.1.2. Mokoena (1998)

Mokoena (1998) further says any language has a way of saying ‘/yes/ and /no/. This is known as the positive and negative forms of expression. It boils down to the statements of confirming and denying in Sesotho. We use prefix /ha/ to form a negative as indicated in (31) below:

(31) Ha ke je.

[*I am not eating.*]

2.2.1.3. Swanepoel and Lenake (1979)

According to Swanepoel and Lenake (1979) causative verbs are made negative according to the now well known rule, using /ha/ as negative morpheme, followed by the subject

concord, which is followed by the verb stem with ending /e/ as indicated in (32) a and (32b) below:

(32a) Kgabedi ha a mpontshe tjhelete ya hae.

[Kgabedi not show me her money.]

b) Thabo ha a mpoelle nnete.

[Thabo does not tell me the truth.]

A positive instruction/command can be changed to negative instruction/command by using /se/ and this kind of command is called command with an object concord. Look at (33a) and (33b) indicated below:

(33a) Se robe sefate ka selepe.

[Do not crack the tree with an axe]

b) Se bapaleng ka mollo.

[Do not play with fire.]

Now let's have a look in this example of the minister when saying as in (33c)

c) Se lateleng nama.

[Do not follow the flesh.]

This is an instruction in the negative, therefore he uses the negative morpheme /se/. Therefore he also uses the verbal ending –e- instead of –a- as in (33d).

d) Se lwaneng hobane lentswe la Modimo ha le dumele seo.

[Do not fight because the word of God doesn't allow that.]

Now we are going to learn how to communicate only one aspect of an action or process. This is so called adverbial implication, still. We actually call it the progressive form. In Sotho a special morpheme is used instead of a separate word, and that morpheme is /sa/. It is placed before the verb stem as indicated (34a), (34b) and (34c) below:

(34a) Moruti o sa bala Bibeale.

[The pastor is still reading the Bible]

b) Mme o sa fiela ka tlung.

[The mother is still sweeping inside the house.]

c) Baithuti ba sa ithuta.

[Students are still learning.]

Now to communicate the negative one uses /ha/ + subject concord (o>a) + sa + verb stem retaining its /a/ ending as indicated in (35a) and (35b) below:

(35a) Mosadi ha a sa dula.

[The woman is no longer staying.]

b) Thabiso ha o sa ithuta.

[Thabiso is no longer learning.]

When we use progressive and future forms together, the progressive precedes the future and negative morpheme /ha/ is used as indicated in (36) below:

(36) Ha ke sa tla o thusa.

[I will no longer be helping you.]

2.2.2. Functions of negation

2.2.2.1. Horn (1989)

Horn (1989) has the idea in his theory that the negation particle does not always fulfill the same function in language use. He acknowledges that the same idea, in one or another form, has been put forward by Ducrot (1972) and by Grice (1967). According to Horn (1989) negation, as is used in sentence or constituent negation in assertoric sentence, can fulfill one of two different functions: either the negation is descriptive or it is metalinguistic. In descriptive use, negation is primarily 'world-function' or 'referentially oriented', that is, the speaker intends to describe a negative state of affairs. This is typically the case in initial, non-reactive, utterances as in (37) below:

(37) The sun isn't shining today.

In metalinguistic use, on the other hand, we have a formally negative utterance which is used to object to a previous utterance on any grounds whatever, including the way it was pronounced as indicated in (38) below:

(38). He didn't call the police.

Horn (2010) also view that natural language negation has the same functions as logical negation when negation is used descriptively. In this way descriptive negation is truth-functional. That simply mean it has the function of reversing the truth-value of the positive counterpart. Metalinguistic negation on other hand, would represent the non-logical use of negation in natural language. In this use, truth-functionality plays no role at all. The discourse-function of rejection is all there, and it is the whole and only function of metalinguistic negation.

2.2.2.2. Schaefer (1984)

Schaefer (1984) has identified four distinct forms of negation in North Ibibio. These forms are not interchangeable, and each occurs in a distinct environment. Also, these forms manifest some allomorphic variation and all of these forms are alike with regard to their placement. Each of them precedes the constituent or constituent with which it relates. These forms include amongst others the rejection morpheme, the denial morpheme, the prohibition morpheme and lastly the non-existence morpheme. The functions of these forms are discussed in details below.

Non existence morpheme

This type of morpheme is explained as a morpheme that deals with the non-existence of a particular object in a context where there is reasonable expectation that is present, or that exist. This form is employed in structures of identification and in cleft-like structures which mark focus or topicalization. In general, we find that this form negates the identity of a given argument in a predication, rather than the entire predication. In expression such as this one, it is most natural in a context where one expected a problem, but found none.

Rejection morpheme

This type of negation deals with the rejection of a suggested referent or of a proposition wherein the suggested referent assumes the role of an argument. The negation marker for this type of morpheme is /no/. This marker is commonly found as a respond to yes/no

question. This type of morpheme involves a referent which is actually present in the immediate context, but for one reason or another it is rejected or declined by the speaker.

Denial morpheme

This type of morpheme deals with the denial of assertion which, in the most straightforward case, is made in prior context. Its primary function is not to reject that assertion as such, but through a contrary assertion, deny the existence of the declared state of affairs. This statement might be spoken in a context where someone has just asserted that someone has done something terrible. Only to find out that someone did not do it.

This kind of negation does not itself reject an entire proposition or assert that an object does not exist in the immediate context. Instead, it offers an alternative proposition, which denies the truth value of the prior assertion, maintaining that just the contrary relationship exists between the prior assertion and the word being described.

Prohibition morpheme

This type of morpheme is typically used in a situations involving exhortation. Following Welmers (1973), we call this the hortative mood, whose basic meaning is that one is obliged to perform some activity or enter some state to which the verb makes reference. This marker is recognised most clearly in command structures, where one wants to order that someone refrain from performing some activity or where one wants to prohibit some activity from taking place.

This is a command that no one is allowed to smoke in that area. Usually the prohibition signs are used to emphasise that point.

This is a command that no one is allowed to enter in that area without permission. Anyone doing so does it at his/her own risk? Usually the prohibition signs are used to emphasise that point.

2.3.Theoretical Framework

2.3.1. Psycholinguistic theory

Hudson (1984) defines psycholinguistic theory as a theory that explores the relationship between the human mind and language. It treats the language user as an individual rather than a representative of a society, but an individual whose linguistic performance is determined by the strength and limitations of the mental apparatus which we all share. Its agenda is to trace similar patterns of linguistic behaviour across large groups of individual's speakers of a particular language or of all languages. It deals with the mind and behaviour of the speaker, listening and learning individual. It further focuses on a basis that when we are speaking, how do we plan what we are going to say? How come we sometimes end up saying the opposite of what we mean like too bad instead of too good. He further say psycholinguistics covers the cognitive processes that make it possible to generate a grammatical and meaningful sentences out of vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as the processes that make it possible to understand utterance, words and text.

Based on this theory and what Schaefer (1984) is saying about functions and form of negation in North Ibie and in all languages is that the capacity to deny, reject, prohibit and non-existence all start in the mind of an individual. The individual is capable of using negative morpheme of his or her language and follow the rules of that particular language. If in Sesotho a child is asked a question like one indicated in (39) below:

(39) "O lapile ?" "*Are you hungry*", the child will say "Tjhe, ha ke a lapa" which is translated as "*No, I am not hungry*".

This shows that the individual in his mental apparatus has the capacity to can deny. At some point you will find the answers such as indicated in (40)

(40) "Ha se nna ya jeleng dijo tsa hae". "*It is not me who ate her food*".

This example shows the relationship between human mind and language because one has to think before he can utter a word and this pattern is followed in linguistic of Sesotho language everytime we deny what has been said.

The formation of a sentence is influenced by the cognitive processes and the vocabulary. If the speaker of a particular languages lacks the vocabulary of a language he finds it difficult to can construct a sentence in that language because what he has to utter is first formulated in his mind. Now the theory of psycholinguistics will help us to see the interaction between

forms and functions in Sesotho based on similar patterns of linguistic behaviour across large groups of individual's speakers of Sesotho language, individuals mind and behaviour as well as the cognitive processes that makes it possible to generate grammatical and meaningful sentences out of vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as the processes that makes it possible to understand utterance, words and text by the use of Sesotho negative morphemes.

As we have seen that according to Dahl (1993) all human languages have means to overly deny the truth and that means the ability "to say no" is the most important achievement of first-language learning in infancy. In fact, by saying "no" children, for the time, are symbolically expressing an abstract concept. So, the use of negation requires complex cognitive abilities. As psycholinguistic research has shown, in order to use negation children need to know the difference between their own mental representations and the external world, they need to know the difference between their own mental representations and the mental representations of the person they are speaking to, moreover, in complex forms of negation, children cannot entirely rely on a present perceptual scene but instead they need to manage their listeners beliefs and other epistemic states. Thus, although the expression of negation is acquired very early in infancy before children learn to talk, in fact pre-linguistic infants can reject something by using gestures as stipulated by Franklin (2007) or by shaking their head, thus show that negation is all but cognitively simple. Furthermore, the psycholinguistic have been identifying the different semantic categories of negation that emerge during cognitive and linguistic development. Hence, psycholinguistic studies on linguistic negation add further evidence that shows that the false belief test is not a reliable proof of a complex mindreading ability.

By looking at first-language learning in infancy, we can see in Bloom's (1970) and Wodes (1977) three functions of negation as rejection, denial and non-existence and the stages in which the infants acquire these functions. According to many studies Schaefer (1984), Bloom (1970) and Zanuttini (1989), rejection is the first category of negation to be acquired. Children use "no" to express refusal of something existing in their present context. However, we can find examples of rejection in human pre-linguistic gestures. In fact, before the time children start to produce the single word "no" to express rejection, they have already expressed rejection non-linguistically. Rejection, according to Pea (1980) does not require abstract mental representations, while non-existence and denial does require them.

The second category of non-linguistic negation to arise in non-existence expectation. This is influenced first by the linguistic negation whereby a child at this point is able to signal the absence or disappearance of an expected referent in the context of speech or indicates something that violates their expectation, based on previous experience (for instance, taking away the toy or her mother disappear). The last function that the psycholinguistic can prove is denial. This is also acquired by the infants. Denial implies negation of a predication. The referent is usually symbolically expressed. As Bloom (1970) argues, to deny, children must have the ability to discern between their own knowledge of the world and the knowledge of their listener. In order to deny a sentence, children have to manage with two propositions, one affirming and one negating the same predication, and they have to ascribe one of them to the person they are speaking to and they are able to read their listeners presuppositions.

Hence, we can say, the first expression of negation does not require internal abstract representation because the rejected object is presented in the perceptual scene, later on, with the expression of a disappearance, abstract mental representation is required because the negated object or person is no longer present in the speech event context. Finally, when the truth-functional negation is used to deny a predication, a second order abstract representation is required. So, negation is metalinguistic because it implies an operation on a proposition. That is to say, negation is the operation of setting a false value for the proposition it is referring to. Thus, negation, or at least denial, seems to imply a second order mental representation. In fact, by expressing a denial towards listener, the child is representing a content, negating that content (by setting a false value and attributing the negated content to the listener).

Now this theory proves that children use the own mental representation to reject, deny, prohibit and non-existence. Rejection negation express inner attitudes of rejection towards behaviour, events, or object that are embedded in the child's very early motor-affective activities. The topic of this type of negation has no need for internal representation because it is immediately present in the context of the rejection. It further shows that non-existence on the other hand, typified by the child's comment of "gone" or "no more" as a ball disappears from sight, requires abstract cognitive representation. Unlike the object of rejection negation, the ball is no longer present, and the negative comment must abstractly denote the vanished object or event of disappearance. These consideration of the cognitive demands of different meanings for negation lead to the prediction that rejection negation, rooted to concrete motor-affective activities, will be the first meaning of negation that children express, followed

by emergence of non-existence negation, which requires the elaboration of more complex cognitive representation. All these functions may be expressed gesturally, with the negative head shake, as well as in single words. For example, the child could shake his head in rejection, when objects disappear, or in a response to yes/no questions or false statement. A much more complex development landscape than this is revealed in the course of the children's negation development.

2.4. Summary

In summary, we considered the facts about negation based on the information about negation by Lyons (1932) when he says one can be able to identify negation through its forms and functions when he says negation creates a composite proposition out of single proposition. He said that because he was concurring with what a definition of negation is saying when explained by the web site of www.merriam-webster.com. Now considering the truth table as suggested by Kate (2000) when saying negation is generally included with the logical connectives because it is truth functional. Hence in English ways to express negation is most commonly by /not/ or /n't/ after first auxiliary verb. Furthermore Zanuttini (1997) says negation can function as a question marker.

As stipulated by Brown and Bellugi (1964) the forms of negation place a negative element followed by the sentence nucleus and Pollock (1989) further said the marker of negation in French occurs below the projection of inflectional and above verb phrase [VP]. Blooms (1970) concurring with Pollock and Brown has identified three main functions of negation as denial, rejection and non-existence and this was found useful by McNeill (1968) in his study of the development of negation in Japanese. This came together in Wode's (1977) survey of studies of development of negation in several languages. He proposes three main stages in the development of negation. Which are the negation morpheme on its own /no/. The combination of negative element with other words and lastly the appearance of negative element inside the utterance. How many researches have come up with the stages of development of negation and where the element of negativity is placed as the stages progressed and those include amongst others Klima and Bellugi (1966), Blooms (1970) and Douglass (2002) who have outlined the seven groups/forms of negation as not-negation, contracted negatives items, the grammatical behaviour of negatives items, negation in phrases and non-finite clauses and transferred negation. These groups are explained thoroughly under empirical data at the beginning of chapter 2. These forms are supported by Milon (1974) by the establishment of negative sequence. Lyons (1932) and others

defined negation as a statement of a logical proposition formed by asserting the falsity of a given proposition. This could be shown in a truth functional by Lyons (1932) were he is saying, when p is true $\sim p$ is false and vice versa.

This view was further supported by Kate (2000) with the use of the truth table for negation which support the issue of Lyons (1932) and others. Under the same breath Otto (1922) says this concept of negation can also be viewed in early child language development, and further say, if a child does not want something he will just show by moving his head as to say /no/. Horn (2010) support Otto (1922) in saying negation imbuing us with the capacity to deny, to contradict or lie and Lindstad (2007) further say this negates parts of or entire sentence or clause and this parts that negates in a sentence or clause are further supported by Bellugi (1967) in saying negative sentence take a form of negative element followed by the sentence nucleus. This leads us to the negation based on stages of child development by Blooms (1970) and Wodes (1977) who come up with two stages. Other than the stages identified by Blooms (1970), Kilma (1966) has identified seven stages which includes the following: not-negation, contracted negation, negative pronouns and determiners. For further details on each stage refer back on this chapter 2.

Other than these stages on negation Thomas (1939) come up with types of negation which are lexical, morphological and analytic negation. These are explained further in chapter 2. These stages and types are further supported by Milon (1974) with the establishment of the sequence of language acquisition as follows: anaphoric, non-anaphoric, internal /be/, internal full verb and suppletive non-imperative /do/ and Douglass (2002) further says negation is a feature of clauses. He identified two main kinds of clause negation as not and no negation. The clause can either be positive or negative. Refer on chapter 2 for further details on this clause negation.

2.5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has argued about what negation is based on different authors and themes. We have also argued about functions of negations by Schaefer (1984) and apply psycholinguistics theory to analyse these functions of negation. Therefore this study concludes in saying negation is a statement of denying the truth value by inserting a negative marker in a sentence such as /no/ and /not/ to show denial, rejection, non-excitence and prohibition and that psycholinguistics theory has an impact on the human mind in relation to language in order for a person to negate. The study also concludes in saying functions of

negation as identified by Schaefer as Rejection, Prohibition, Denial and Non-existence they also apply in Sesotho as identified by Mokoena (1998) and this study.

CHAPTER 3

FORMS OF NEGATION

3.0. Introduction

This chapter highlights forms of negation as stipulated by Schaefer (1984) and other authors such as Malete (2008) Aitchison (1992), McNeill (1970) and Palmer (1979). An examination of Sesotho negative forms will also be explored as well as their distribution in Sesotho various sentences.

3.1. Forms of negations as identified by Schaefer

Schaefer and Masagbor (1984) have identified four distinct forms of negation in North Ibie. These forms are not interchangeable, and each occurs in a distinct environment. Also, these forms manifest some allomorphic variation and all of these forms are alike with regard to their placement. Each of them precedes the constituent or constituent with which it relates. These forms include amongst others the rejection morpheme, the denial morpheme, the prohibition morpheme and lastly the non-existence morpheme.

3.1.1. Rejection morphemes

Schaefer (1984) say this type of negation deals with the rejection of a suggested referent or of a proposition wherein the suggested referent assumes the role of an argument. The negation marker for this type of morpheme is /no/. This marker is commonly found as a respond to /yes/ or /no/ question.

This type of morpheme involves a referent which is actually present in the immediate context, but for one reason or another it is rejected or declined by the speaker.

3.1.2. Denial morphemes

Schaefer (1984) say this type of morpheme deals with the denial of assertion which, in the most straightforward case, is made in prior context. Its primary function is not to reject that assertion as such, but through a contrary assertion, deny the existence of the declared state of affairs. This statement might be spoken in a context where someone has just asserted that Thabo has done something terrible. Only to find out that Thabo did not do it.

This kind of negation does not itself reject an entire proposition or assert that an object does not exist in the immediate context. Instead, it offers an alternative proportion, which denies

the truth value of the prior assertion, maintaining that just the contrary relationship exists between the prior assertion and the word being described.

3.1.3. Prohibition morphemes

Schaefer (1984) say this type of morpheme is typically used in a situations involving exhortation. Following Welmers (1973), we call this the hortative mood, whose basic meaning is that one is obliged to perform some activity or enter some state to which the verb makes reference. This marker is recognised most clearly in command structures, where one wants to order that someone refrain from performing some activity or where one wants to prohibit some activity from taking place. This is a command that no one is allowed to smoke in that area. Usually the prohibition signs are used to emphasise that point.

This is a command that no one is allowed to enter in that area without permission. Anyone doing so does it at his/her own risk? Usually the prohibition signs are used to emphasise that point.

3.1.4. Non–existence morphemes

Schaefer (1984) say this type of morpheme is explained as a morpheme that deals with the non-existence of a particular object in a context where there is reasonable expectation that is present, or that it exist. This form is employed in structures of identification and in cleft-like structures which mark focus or topicalization. In general, we find that this form negates the identity of a given argument in a predication, rather than the entire predication.

In expression such as this one is most natural in a context where one expected a problem, but found none.

3.2. Negation by gesture

In Schaefer and Masagbor (1984) journal, one of the most widely cited psycholinguistic investigations of negation is Bloom's (1970) analysis of the acquisition of English. Bloom (1970) suggested that a child learning the negation process has to acquire three different semantic functions. The three functions of negation as discussed in psycholinguistics by Aitchison (1992) include among others non-existence, denial and rejection.

According to this study of psycholinguistics non-existence deals with non-existence of a particular object in a context where there is reasonable expectation that it is present, or that

exists or the referent was not manifest in the context, where there was an expectation of its existence, and was correspondingly negated in the linguistic expression. Rejection deals with rejection of a suggested referent or of a proposition wherein the suggested referent assumes the role of an argument or the referent actually existed or was imminent within the contextual space of the speech event and was rejected or opposed by the child whereas the last function of negation as identified by Aitchison (1992) is denial. Denial deals with the denial of an assertion which, in a most straightforward case, is made in prior context or the negation asserted that an actual predication was not the case. The negated referent was manifest symbolically in a previous utterance.

McNeill (1970) also concur with what it said by Schaefer (1984) about his four forms of negation in his research in Japanese children as well as the research of Franklin (2007) which is explained in details below. NIH Public Access manuscripts by Army Franklin.

3.2.1. Rejection in terms of gesture

Schaefer (1984) have followed Bloom's (1970) definition of rejection in identifying instances of this negative meaning in David's gesture. A rejection is not a contradiction in the logical sense, but an exertion of will, opinion, or preference. This type of negation is used to reject object, ongoing action, or proposed action. Rejection of objects offered by others are common in the play setting, as toys, puzzle pieces, snacks, and other objects are often passed back and forth. This morpheme was tested on David while playing on the floor with the experimenter. The experimenter offers him a bag of toys. David does not want this particular bag but wants another bag instead. He first shakes his head side-to-side and points to the bag that the experimenter has offered. He then points to the second bag.

3.2.2. Denial in terms of gesture

This is the second form of negation described by Bloom (1970). A gesture sentence is coded as a denial when the sentence asserts that an actual or supposed proposition is not the case. Denials are comments on the truth or falsity of a proposition and do not require that the- to- be denied proposition be explicitly stated. Unlike rejection, which require the presence of objects or the suggestion/offer of an action, denials are comments on the truth or falsity of a proposition and do not require that the denied proposition be explicitly stated. One could, for example, state that a robin is not a duck without anyone explicitly stating the first proposition, that a robin is a duck. Denial involves the prototypical use of negation as a truth functional connective.

While looking at photos with the experimenter, David gestures that his brother is at school (who is pictured in the photo), he shakes his head and points to the door and then produces a gesture for school (two palms held together as if praying, David attends a Catholic oral school for the deaf where the children often pray) to indicate that his brother is currently at school. When the experimenter points to David, he responds by pointing to his chest while shaking his head and then points again to the door, glossed as I did not go to school.

3.2.3. Non-existence terms of gesture

Non-existence statements are comments about the absence of an object or action whose presence is expected in that context. They adopt here Bloom's differentiation of this category from denial because it conveniently sets apart a set of negations whose communicative purpose is not only to negate, but also to express a kind of emotion or surprise. In this sense, non-existence is qualitatively different from denial, whose purpose is simply that of the truth functional connective, which assert the sentence with the reverse truth value. In logical terms, in the utterances described as non-existence, what is negated is the predicate "exist or happen," which can be understood as term negation in the Aristotelian sense, see (Horn 1989 for details). e.g. David notes that there is no bird in the picture of a nest where the bird is typically found.

Other than these Lyons (1977) and Stockwell (1977) have defined negation as semantically as a denial of a positive proposition, or a predication that a proposition is untrue, it is asserted here that in Ibibio, negation is a complex process both formally and semantically. On the other Palmer (1979) has further studied in-depth negation in Ibibio, however, reveals that semantically and formally, negation is a very complex process. Essien (1985) in his journal of West African Language XV.1 has continued from the work of Palmer (1979) and has identified four forms of negation in Ibibio which functions as prohibitive or preventive and denial. Refer on Essien (1985 journal for more details on this forms and function to be discussed below)

3.3. The form of negation in Ibibio

The form of the negative imperative is /ku-/. It characteristically bears a falling tone though in fast and excited speech the contour falling tone can be to a level tone. /Ku/ has similar function of what Schaefer (1984) calls prohibition morpheme in North Ibie as indicated in (41) below:

(41). Kudēp urdio *"don't buy a radio"*.

3.3.1. Negative Forms in Declarative Sentences

According to Essien (1985) the formation of the negative suffixes in declarative sentences is complicated, leading to the various forms of the same morpheme. The form of the suffix depends on the three categories of the syllable structure of verb roots namely, consonant-vowel-consonant [CVC], consonant-vowel [CV] and consonant-vowel-consonant-vowel [CVCV]. Semantically, negation in declarative sentences denies the proposition of the sentence. Negation in simple declarative set of sentences involves suffixation as well as vowel harmony, a fairly common feature of African language, tone raising and what may be called vowel 'diffusization'. Semantically, negation in declarative sentences denies the proposition of the sentence.

3.3.2. Negation in embedded sentences

Embedded sentences have four kinds which include negation in relative clause, negation in concessional clause, negation in conditional clause and clause of results. These kinds will not be discussed in detail since Essien (1985) has done so in his journal.

3.3.3. Negation in serial construction

Serial construction involves the use of a double verb in what is otherwise a simple clause. In Ibibio, the first constituent of the double verb bears the brunt of the negation. Serial construction has three parts which includes ordinary serial constructions which function to deny the fact, coordinate sentence and inceptive aspect and finally modal negation.

3.3.4. Negation of reduplication verbs

Reduplication in Ibibio consist of doubling the verb root and modifying the derived verb phonologically, if the root has a consonant-vowel-consonant [CVC] syllable structure, by deleting the final consonant of the root.

3.4. Negation in natural language

According to www.semioticon.com we are born with the ability to can use negation indicated by gesture or other behaviour that we reject, exclude, or disagree with something. It further discuss functions of negation based on natural language. There are many apparently different forms of negation in natural language. Here we consider six categories of natural language negation.

The first form of negation appearing in the lexicon is the use of the word /no/ in its subjective or pre-logical sense, to reject or to signal displeasure with an undesirable situation or object.

The second of negation is the use of the word /no/ to signal a refusal to comply with a request or command for action or for a cessation of a particular action.

The third form of negation is the use of the word /no/ as a directive to others to act differently. As well as denying a request or a command to act or cease acting, and refusing objects offered to them.

The fourth form is normally used by child to comment on his or her failure to achieve an intended goal to do something or is doing something that is prohibited and the fifth form uses negation to compare or quantify scalar value. Negation is often used for the concept of zero, or non-existence.

The final form of negation appears developmentally, is the use of negation to deny a stated utterance. Children are able to negate propositions as soon as they can produce them and this form normally appears between 1.5 to 2.5 years, which is about the same time that children are first able to put words together.

3.5. Forms of Negation in Sesotho

3.5.1. Negative morphemes /ha/ in Sesotho

According to Malete (2001) the negative morpheme /ha/ only appears in the indicative mood and he has investigated its distribution within this mood only. He further said within the morphological structure of the verb, the prefix /ha/ will occupy the position, which is furthest from the verb. This morpheme frequently appears as a circumfix with another negative morpheme, namely the suffix /-e/. As indicated above, the distribution of the negative /ha/ will be investigated with regard to non-copulative verbs and copulative verbs.

The negative morpheme /ha/ can also appear with the copulative verbs. It obligatorily appears with the negative copulative verb /se/ as /Ha – se/, to negate the copulative verb /ke/, where the syntactic categories such as noun phrase [NP], locative noun phrases [NP_{Loc}] and complementizer phrases [CP] appear as complements. The sentences in (42) below illustrate:

- (42) Dibe ha – se moruti
 [Dibe is not the pastor]

Dube (2002) further says this morpheme is used to negate what is existing by the use of /ha/ in Sesotho. This also appears in part of speech such as tenses e.g. past continuous tense to show negation. When a present tense is in a negative singular or plural form it negates what you are saying. This is seen by the use of a negative morpheme /ha/ as a negator.

According to Malete (2003) this negative morpheme /ha/ is well distributed in the non-copulative verbs over a full range of tense, aspect and mood distinction, copulative verbs and deficient verbs. This morpheme also distribute within the modal Lexemes.

According to Khoali et al (1989) other morpheme that makes up the verb is morpheme that shows that the speaker is negating. The negative morpheme /ha/ is used to negate what is said not to be true. As the sentence in (43) show below:

(43). Motho *ha* a tsebe nnete.

[A person does not know the truth]

They further say that negative morpheme /ha/ is used as the connecting word of helping verb. The sentence in (44) show below:

(44). Barutwana *ha* ba ke ba hlodie.

[The learners never make noise]

When the negative morpheme /ha/ is preceding the connecting word of the helping verb it changes the suffix of helping verb to be /e/. The sentence in (45) show below:

(45) Ha a hlole a iketsa tsebanyane.

[He will never make himself a clever]

Khoali et al (1989) further says in negative form habitual mood uses the negative morpheme /ha/ as the head of helping verb. The sentence in (46) show below:

(46) Pula *ha* e ke e ne mariha.

[It never rains in winter]

A negative morpheme /ha/ can also be used with copulative verbs as its form. In this form a negative morpheme /ha/ is placed between the subject and connecting word if the subject is the first speaker or second speaker in a singular or plural form. The sentence in (47) show below:

(47) Nna ha ke Morena.

[I am not a King]

If relative copulative is in negative form the adverbial morpheme /le/ disappears if only the meaning is not relative but a possessive. The sentence in (48) show below:

(48) Motho ha a na mohau.

[A person does not have mercy]

On the other hand all types of pronouns can function as addition to copulative but in negative form adverbial morpheme /le/ disappears if the meaning is relative not possessive. The sentences in (49a), (49b), (49c), (49d) and (49e) show below:

(49a) Motho ha a na tsona. Absolute Pronoun

[He does not have them]

b) Motho ha a na bano. Demonstrative pronoun

[He does not have those]

c) Motho ha a na mang. Interrogative pronoun

[He does not have any]

d) Thaba ha e na bo botala. Relative pronoun

[The mountain does not have green one]

e) Batho ha bana tsohle. Collective pronoun

[People do not have all]

They further say negative morpheme /ha/ can also be used in the tenses such as present tense of indicative mood. The sentence in (50) show below:

(50) Monna ha a je mafi.

[A man does not eat full cream milk]

This negative morpheme /ha/ is also distributed in the future tense and is placed between subject and connecting word. The sentence in (51) show below:

(51) Thabo ha o tlo ja dijo.

[Thabo is not going to eat food]

And is also found in the past perfect tense and future perfect tense as in (52a) and (52b) below.

(52a) Basadi ha ba bine pina.

[Women are not singing a song.]

b) Bakgotsi ha ba tlo fihla.

[Friends are not going to arrive.]

3.4.2. Negative morphemes /se/ & /ha/ in Sesotho

According to Malete (2001), the third negative morpheme in Sesotho is the negative /se/. It occupies the fifth position in the linear order of the verbal prefixes of Sesotho. The negative morpheme /se/ appears in a wide variety of moods, which are normally not distinguishable into tenses. The distribution of this negative morpheme will be investigated within the non-copulative verb and the copulative verbs. This morpheme frequently appears as a circumfix with the negative suffix /e/.

The negative morpheme /se/ obligatorily appears with the negative suffix /- e/ in all the moods in which it appears. It is also observed that in the subjunctive, consecutive, potential and habitual moods, the subject agreement precedes the morpheme /se/, and where there are other intervening morphemes such as the potential /ka/ and the hortative /ha/, the negative morpheme /se/ is still preceded by these morphemes. It is however only in the hortative mood that the subject agreement [AGRS] is preceded by the hortative mood /ha/.

As observed from above, the negative morpheme /se/ only appears with two copulative verbs, namely: /na/ and /ba/. In other instances it appears as the negative copulative verb. As indicated above, the negative morpheme /se/ appears with the subject agreement [AGRS], which always precedes /se/.

With the aspect morphemes, the negative morpheme /se/ appears only with the necessity aspect morpheme /no/. In this case, the negative morpheme /se/ is also preceded by the subject agreement but it precedes the morpheme [no] and the suffix of the verb is retained. The sentence in (53) illustrate:

(53) Baithuti ba se no bua
[Learners should not speak]

In the case of the negative morpheme /se/, it is observed that this morpheme appears in non-tensed sentence constructions of non-copulative verbs. It appears within the remaining moods such as the imperative, hortative, potential, subjunctive and the consecutive mood. This morpheme appears only with the copulative verbs /ba/ and /na/ as a morpheme, but with the other copulative verbs such as /ke/ and /le/, it becomes a negative copulative verb.

Furthermore according to Khoali et al (1989) the negative morpheme /se/ it is distributed under the concept of auxiliary verbs in the negative form. When the negative are formed the negative morphemes are connected on auxiliary. The negative morpheme /se/ can be placed between connecting word of auxiliary and root of auxiliary and its suffix will be /e/ as shown in (54) below:

(54) Ba se hlole ba iketsa botsebanyane.
[They should not ever make themselves clever]

This morpheme is also used in negative subjunctive mood. In this form we use our negative morpheme /se/ as well as our verb to form negative on this mood. This can also be found in conditional mood or potential mood were it shows what the speaker demonstrates that action can be possible to be done as shown in (55a) and (55b) below:

- (55a) Ke lakatsa hore le se thole ha a le botsa. Subjunctive mood on negative form
[I wish that you will not keep quite when he ask you]
b) Motswadi a ka se swetse ngwana. Conditional mood
[A parent can not disappoint a child]

It is further said in the first speaker and second speaker the suffix still remains /e/ as well as our negative morpheme /se/ as shown in (56) below.

(56) First speaker [Ke se phele] and second speaker [O se phele].
[I should not live] [They should not live]

It is further said by Doke and Mofokeng (1974) the negatives of substantival copulatives with 3rd person subjects are formed by prefixing /ha se/ without any subjunctival concord as shown in (57a) and (57b) below:

(57a) Motho eo ha se Morena.

[That person is not a King]

b) Ha se ka boomo.

[It is not intentionally]

This morpheme can also be used with tenses such as in present, past tense and future tense this morpheme is as follows in (58a), (58b) and (58c) below:

(58a) Dula fatshe re se bue. Present tense

[Seat down and let us not talk]

b) Dula fatshe re tle re se bue. Future tense.

[Seat down and will not talk]

c) Nna ke ne ke se motho. Past tense

[I was not a human being]

3.4.3. Negative morpheme /sa/ in Sesotho

The second negative morpheme in Sesotho is the negative /sa/. It occupies the third position in the linear order of the verbal prefixes of Sesotho. The negative morpheme /sa/ only appears in the participle and the relative moods. Its distribution will therefore be investigated within these two moods and predicate forms such as non-copulative verbs and copulative verbs.

From the above observations, it is clear that the negative morpheme /sa/ in the relative mood appears with different morphemes depending on different tenses. In the present tense, it appears with the negative suffix /e/, in the perfect tense the perfect negative prefix disappears while the verb retains the suffix /- a -/. In the future tense it appears with the future tense morpheme /tlo/.

According to Khoali et al (1989) the negative morpheme /sa/ is used with the verb to negate what is being said as indicated in (59) below:

(59) Ha ngwana a sa batle dijo, a se qobellwe.

[If a child does not want food, should not be force]

It can further be used with negative subjunctive mood and connecting verb /a/ and the suffix of the verb stem will change to /e/ as in (60a) and (60b) below:

(60a) Ke mmona a sa hlaole

[I see him not sawing]

b) Ha a sa ba rute, ba tla pasa

[If he is not teaching them, they will pass]

It can also be used with Simple Present Tense as in sentence (61) below:

(61) Re mo tshwere a sa pepa ngwana.

[We catch her not carrying a child]

It is clear that our verb in a negative form has a connecting verb /a/ in class 1 being used with a negative morpheme /sa/ with the suffix of the verb stem being /a/ as shown in (61) above.

A negative morpheme /sa/ can further be used in future tense in a negative form. We still have our connecting verb /a/ in class 1 and our suffix /a/ in the verb stem and the morpheme of future tense /tlo/ precede the negative morpheme /sa/ as indicated in (62) below:

(62) Ha o sa utlwisise le nna ha ke no utwlisisa.

[If you don't understand I also don't understand]

The negative morpheme /sa/ is also inserted between connecting word of the verb and the verb stem as indicated in (63) below:

(63) Dintja di ne di sa mathe.

[Dogs were not running]

According to Swanepoel and Lenake (1979) to communicate the negative one uses ha + subject concord + sa + verb stem retaining its /a/ ending as indicated in (64) below:

(64) Wena ha o sa ithuta.

[You are not learning anymore]

The morpheme /sa/ is placed before the verb stem when is used in a progressive form. In this case /sa/ is not used to negate but to show the progression as in sentence (65) below:

(65) Mosadi o sa eme.

[The woman is still standing]

3.4.4. The word category /Tjhe/ in Sesotho

3.4.4.1. Defining and classifying the word /tjhe/

According to disjunctive writing a word is explained as a part of a sentence which is surrounded by parts, the other part before it and the other one after it. Based on morphology words are formed with small units refer to as morphemes. For a word to be classified as a word based on semantic it must follow the following categories phonology, morphology, semantics and syntax and based on morphology a word must be able to perform these functions (1), Words should have root and meaning (2), move from one place to another in a sentence and (3), it should be able to stand for other words in a sentence and lastly it should be able to fit between A and B. Since according to the categories of semantics which allow /tjhe/ to function under those categories mentioned above /tjhe/ is regarded as a word, and based on morphology /tjhe/ can also be regarded as word since it has root and meaning and the ability to fulfil the transportability test as well as separability test as shown in (64 a) and (64b) below:

(64a) Tjhe ke ile ka mo etela bookelong le ha maemo a hae a bophelo a hlobaetsa

[No I did visit him at hospital even if his condition is critical]

(64b) Ke ile ka mo etela bookelong le ha feela tjhe maemo a hae a bophelo a hlobaetsa.

[I visited him at hospital even though his condition is critical]

3.4.4.2. Dual status of the word /tjhe/

The word /tjhe/ can be used in either negation or negative and questioning and as well as the expression of moods. According to Khoali et al (1989) the word /tjhe/ is used to answer the question that has a conjunction /na/ in order to answer that question or to deny the statement or what is been said by the speaker. It can also be used with ordinary questions without the use of /na/ as indicated in (65) below:

(65). Na o a e ja nama ya kolobe?

[Do you eat pork?]

This is a question where /na/ is used to ask a question, were a person is asked whether he/she eats pork, and the answer to the question will be as illustrated in (66) below:

(66) “Tjhe, ha ke e je”

[No I don't eat it].

As observed from the respond in answer that question /tjhe/ has to be used. Furthermore Dube (2002) says it can also be used with ordinary questions such as the one in (67) below:

(67) Ekaba ho amohelahile hore re Sothofatse mantswe kaofela a dipuo tse ding?

[Is it allowed that we translate all languages?]

In answering such question /tjhe/ is used to answer that question as shown in the response in (68) below:

(68) Tjhe, ha ho a amohela.

[No it is not allowed].

It is further said it can also be used to emphasise what is said by the speaker or exclaim such as in the following examples in (69a) and (69b) below:

(69a) Tjhe, ya ratang ntwale le ka nnete enwa motho!

[Wow, this person really likes to fight]

b) Tjhe, wa tla mpolaya bo!

[Wow, you have just made my day]

Here /tjhe/ emphasis what is just being said by the speaker and shows amusement.

3.4.4.3 The meaning of /tjhe/ as the negative word.

The word /tjhe/ is placed at the beginning of the sentence and followed by the comma. If it used were it answer a question after a comma a negative morpheme /ha/ is places as the emphasis of what is denied.

3.6. Summary and conclusion

To summarize, negation is a very complex phenomenon that combines, semantically it is not only a denial of a proposition, as it is commonly defined, it can be denial of modality or emphasis. Sometimes it is not merely a denial, it is also prohibitive or preventive in function as well as rejection and non-existence.

These leads us to the forms of negation as discussed by Schaefer (1984) and Bloom's (1970) amongst others where they say negation has denial, prohibition, non-existence and finally rejection forms.

As Essien (1985) and www.semioticon.com said in their researches negation is what we are born with and is found in all language. It also involves the cognitive domain as said by Bloom's (1970) in his research and beside the gestures also can express the form of negation as said by Franklin (2007).

Based on this facts this study therefore concludes that forms of negation are determined by the morphemes in every language and that morphemes act to function to deny, prohibit or prevent, reject and show non-existence of a positive proportion that is untrue and of course the use of gestures for hearing impaired and ordinary being can express the negation.

And that /tjhe/ like the prepositions which is not found within a word but outside a word is regarded as a morpheme like /ha/, /sa/ and /se/ which are not found in a word as part of a word. It has same functions as /ha/, /sa/ and /se/ in terms of negative form or negation.

By virtue of being an interjective, it is a word, but as monomorphemic word is a negative word, if used to answer a question it function as a negative word that negates what is being said by the speaker, but on other cases it function as a word that emphasise what has been said by the speaker, by expressing the feeling or moods. Therefore this study concludes in saying /tjhe/ has a dual status. As being a word and a negative word.

CHAPTER 4

FUNCTIONS OF NEGATION IN SESOTHO

4.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the aim is to examine the various forms of negative morphemes in Sesotho which can perform the functions of negation as stipulated by Schaefer (1984). These functions include non-existence, prohibition, denial and rejection. Brief definitions of various function will be given and followed by identification of Sesotho morphemes which this study argues to be the appropriate morphemes to perform negative functions as indicated by Schaeffer (1984). These negative functions will be examined within the non copulative verbs and the copulative verbs. Doke and Mofokeng (1974) says there is first a plain predication in which no verb whatever appears, and secondly there is a conjugation of the copulative in which the copulative verbs /ba/ /le/ and /na/ are used.

4.1. Non existence negation with the negative morpheme /ha/

According to Schaefer (1984) this type of morpheme is explained as a morpheme that deals with the non-existence of a particular object in a context where there is reasonable expectation that is present, or that exist. This form is employed in structures of identification and in cleft-like structures which mark focus or topicalization. In general, we find that this form negates the identity of a given argument in a predication, rather than the entire predication.

For instance, an expression such as that in (70) is most natural in a context where one expected soap, but found none as stipulated by Schaefer (1984)

(70) Ha ho sesepa.

[There isn't any soap.]

What we notice in this kind of negation is the speaker's use of a noun. For which there is no known referent in the immediate context. What is said by Schaefer (1984) in the example above is also found in Sesotho language by the employment of the Sesotho neg morpheme /ha/ as stipulated in example (71) below:

(71) Ha ho motho ka tlung.

[There is nobody in a house.]

In this case the speaker was expecting to get someone in a house when he enter, but found none.

4.1.1. Existential /ho/ in Sesotho and its negation

According to Doke and Mofokeng (1974) the morpheme /ho/ may either function as an expletive or a locative subjectival morpheme, if the locative phrase appears as subject of the clause. If /ho/ functions as expletive, it tends to favour locative phrase which has an old locative class noun as head such as [morao].

(72) Ho na le batho ka tlung.

[*There are people in a house.*]

When the locative phrase appears as the subject of a copulative clause, the subjectival morpheme /ho/ will still appear but will now refer to the locative subject and not to an expletive. What we should note about this kind of a morpheme is that one use a noun to show a known referent in the immediate context such as in the example (72) above.

(73) Lelapeng leo ha ho sa le motho.

[*There is no one any more in that family.*]

The locative morpheme /ho/ is the subjectival agreement morpheme of the locative subject. This locative morpheme /ho/ appears with a negative morpheme /ha/. We should note that in example (73) one was expecting to find people in that house but only found out that no one is present or exists. One was expecting a person at home, but found none.

Furthermore Doke and Mofokeng (1974) says indefinite copulatives is achieved by the employment of the Class 7 concord /ho/, except when used with adverbs of manner, the use of this concord always gives a locative implication to the construction, thus linking this use of the prefix with the U-Bantu locative Class 17.

(74) Ho monna ka tlung.

[*There is a man in the house.*]

Mpeko (1992) further say existential /ho/ can appear in copulative contractions and non-copulatives contraction. Let have a look in the passive form.

Passive form

Passive morphology externalizers the subject (because the subject is not assigned any e-role by passive verb). When the passive affix –w- is added on to the verb, its subjects position become empty and it is designated as pro which is spelled out as “ho”. The subject agreement [AGRS] is coindexed with the empty pro, so that they both have the feature (+existential).

(75) Ho a kulwa.

[There is being sick]

She further says in the adjunction a transformation rule move may be applied to move one constituent to the end of the S containing it. As in the example (76) below:

(76) Banna ba a sebetsa

[The man are working]

When the subject is moved to the postverbal adjunct position by the adjunction rule, the subject position become empty as in (77) below:

(77) [] sebetsa banna.

[] work men.

An empty pro coindexed with the existential morpheme /ho/ is inserted in the subject position. As indicated in (78) below:

(78) Ho sebetsa banna.

[There work the men.]

On the basis of the sentences above we conclude that the existential empty pro occupies the empty position of subjects that have been externalized by the passive morphology or the adjunction rule.

Furthermore we are investigating whether the existential empty pro can be inserted in the empty subject position of copulative constractives.

4.1.1.1. Existential /ho/ where noun phrase [NP] is a complement

Existential /ho/ can appear with following verbs which take NP complements.

The Abstract copulative verbs

(79) Ho batho kerekeng.

[There are people at the church.]

Copulative verb “Le”

(80) Ho le dikgomo sakeng leo.

[There being cattles in that kraal.]

Copulatives verb “Se”

(81) Ke fumane ho se ngwana e motle.

[I found there was no pretty child.]

The head noun can be represented by the empty category pro in constructions such as:

(82) Ho le tse ntle tshimong eo.

[There being beautiful ones in that garden.]

The head noun or empty category pro may be followed by

Verbal relative

(83) Ho batho ba kulang tlung eo

[There are people who are sick in that house.]

(84) Ho ba kulang tlung eo.

[There are those who are sick in that house]

A possessive

(85) Ho le leloko la ha Mokotedi feela.

[There being clan from Mokotedi's family only]

(86) Ho le la ha Mokotedi feela.

[There being those from Mokotedi's family only]

A quantifier

(87) Ho phutheho tsohle Pasekeng ena.

[There are all congregations in this Easter.]

(88) Ho tsohle Pasekeng ena.

[There being all in this Easter.]

4.1.1.2. Existential /ho/ where adjectival phrase [AP] is a complement

The abstract copulative verb

(89) Ho hotle basadi.

[There are beautiful the women]

Copulative verb “Le”

(90) Ho le hotala jwang.

[There being green is the grass]

Copulative verb “Se”

(91) Ho se hotenya mmele.

[There being not fat the body]

4.1.1.3. Existential /ho/ where nominal relative phrase [NP_{REC}] is a complement

The abstract copulative verb

(92) Ho batsi noka.

[There is wide the river]

Copulative verb “Le”

(93) Ho le lesisitheho ntate ho fa bana tjhelete.

[There being reluctant the father to give children money]

Copulative verb “Se”

(94) Ho se botswa bashanyana.

[There being not lazy gentleman]

Copulative verb “Ba”

(94) Ho ba mafolofolo banna ba kereke.

[There become busy the men of the church]

4.1.1.4. Existential /ho/ where locative noun phrase [NP_{LOC}] is a complement

Although sentences where NP_{LOC} immediately follows the copulative verb are syntactically possible, such sentences are unacceptable. They become acceptable when the NP_{LOC} and NP exchange positions next to the verb or when the NP_{LOC} is in the subject position.

The abstract copulative verb

(95) a) Ho sekolong baithuti.

[There at school are students.]

b) Ho baithuti sekolong.

[There are students at the school.]

c) Sekolong ho baithuti

[At school there are students]

Copulative verb “Le”

(96) a) Ho le koloing thoto.

[There on the car are goods]

b) Ho le thoto koloing.

[There being goods on the car]

c) Koloing ho le thoto.

[On the car there being goods]

Copulative verb “Se”

- (97) a) Ho se nokeng metsi.
[There being no in the river water]
b) Ho se metsi nokeng.
[There being no water in the river.]
c) Nokeng ho se metsi.
[In the river there being no water.]

Copulative verb “Ba”

- (98) a) Ho tla ba Limpopo baithuti.
[There will be in the Limpopo students]
b) Ho tla ba baithuti Limpopo
[There will be students in Limpopo]
c) Limpopo ho tla ba baithuti.
[In Limpopo there will be students]

The NP_{LOC} may be preceeded by a locative demonstrative or absolute pronoun.

- (99) a) Ho hona sekolong masea.
[There are just at school infants]
b) Ho masea hona sekolong.
[There are infants just at school]
c) Hona sekolong ho masea.
[Just at school there are infants]
- (100) a) Ho se mona ho yena letho.
[There being here with him nothing]
b) Ho se letho mona ho yena.
[There being nothing here with him]
c) Mona ho yena ho se letho.
[Here with him there being nothing]
- (101) a) Ho le moo moketeng banna, basadi le bana.
[There being there at the feast men, women and children]
b) Ho le banna, basadi le bana moo moketeng.
[There being men, women and children at that feast.]

c) Moo moke_{LOC}teng ho le banna, basadi le bana.

[At that feast there were men, women and children.]

In all cases where the noun phrase [NP] immediately follows the copulative verb, emphasis falls on the NP_{LOC} which appears in the final position.

Locative classes as complements

Unlike in sentences 95-101 where a NP_{LOC} may not immediately follow the copulative verb, a locative class noun may immediately follow the copulative verb without affecting the acceptability of the sentence.

(102) Ho morao bana.

[There behind are children]

The locative noun may also appear in the final position.

(103) Ho bana morao.

[There are children behind]

The difference in meaning between (102) and (103) above can be explained by their interrogative counterparts.

(104) Ho morao eng?

[What is behind?]

Answer Bana

[Children]

In sentences where the locative class noun follows the copulative verb, the emphasis falls on the NP which is in the final position. The NP (bana) is thus in the focus position where the speaker draws the attention of the hearer.

(105) Ho bana kae?

[Where are children?]

Answer morao

[Behind]

In this sentence the focus is on the location or the place where the children are. Locative noun (morao) therefore receives more focus than the NP (bana) which is regarded as old information.

Locative class fa-:

(106) Ho fatshe theko ya dijo.

[There low is the price of food]

Here the focus is on the price of food and not its position of being low.

(107) Ho theko ya dijo fatshe.

[There is the price of food low.]

In (107) the emphasis is on the position of the price of food and not that on the price itself.

Locative class ho-:

(108) Ho hodimo nonyana.

[There up is the bird]

It is as if the speaker is contrasting the NP (nonyana) with something.

(109) Ho hodimo nonyana e seng sefofane.

[There up is the bird not the aeroplane]

Locative class mo-:

(110) Ho morao basadi le bana.

[There behind are women and children]

This sentence can also be used for contrastive purpose.

(111) Ho morao basadi le bana, banna ba pele.

[It is the women and children behind, the man are in front]

Locative teng-:

(112) Ho teng Modimo

[There present is God]

This sentence asserts the presence and immediate availability of God in a particular location. It is understood with respect to the immediate situation of utterance.

4.1.1.5. Existential /ho/ where a prepositional phrase is a complement.

In sentence where prepositional phrase [PP] is a complement of the copulative verb, the NP follows the verb and the locative appears in the final position.

Preposition “Le”

It always appears with the copulative verbs “na” or “ba” and in some cases with “le” and “se”

- (113) Ho na le moruti Bethlehem
[There is a pastor in Bethlehem]

Preposition “ha”

The four copulative verbs occur with “ha” as head of the prepositional phrase.

- (114) Ho banna ha Sekonyela.
[There are men in Sekonyela's place]

Preposition “Ka”

- (115) Ho dikeledi ka mahlong.
[There are tears in the eyes]

Preposition “Ho”

The copulative verbs [COP], “le”, “se” and “ba” can occur with preposition “ho” as head of the prepositional phrase.

- (116) Ho phutheho ho moruti.
[There is a congregation with the minister]

- (117) Ho le bakodi ho ngaka.

[There being patients with the doctor]

(118) Ho se bana ho mosadimoholo.

[There being no children with the old woman]

(119) Ho tla ba kgotso ho batho.

[There will be peace to the people]

4.1.1.6. Existential /ho/ with definite noun phrases [NPs]

Absolute Pronoun

(120) Ho teng yena.

[There is he present]

Yena in (120) is a definite NP since the referent to which it refers is uniquely identifiable by both speaker and the hearer within the particular context of discourse. Yena indicates that the referent is agreed upon by the speaker and the hearer.

Absolute pronouns are definite in themselves e.g. (120) above and they also give definiteness to any noun with which they are used.

(121) Ho na le bona bana sekolong.

[There are them the children at school]

The NPs bana in (121) are definite because they are specifically identified by the absolute pronouns with which they occur.

Possessives

(122) Ho na le bana ba hae ka tlung.

[There are children of his in the house]

NP bana ba hae is definite since it denotes specific children present in the house. It has an identifiable referent because it points back to what was previously mentioned in the discourse.

Adjectives

Adjectives give definiteness to a noun with which they are used since they can be used to denote a class of people or some abstract quality as in

(123) Ho na le bana ba batle tlung eo.

[There are beautiful children in that house]

4.1.1.7. Existential /ho/ with an indefinite

(124) Ho na le matitjhere sekolong.

[There are teachers at school]

The sentence is non-specific because an indefinite NP (matitjhere) has been used. Teachers who are the topic of the sentence have not been specifically identified. The NP has no identifiable referent, it could refer to any teacher, of any other and of any gender or age.

4.1.2. The neg morpheme /ha/ and its employment to negate existence

Doke and Mofokeng (1974) says this negation marker, in the form of /ha/ is used to negate existence. It form negates the identity of a given argument in a predication, rather than the entire predication. Hence, referred to as marker of Non-existence. The Non-existence in Sesotho refers either to a referent that does not exist or to one that does not bear the relationship specified in a preceding proposition. Moreover, the placement of these forms is important as it precedes the nominal whose identity is negated as indicated in (125a) and (125b).

(125a) Ho teng batho ka tlung.

[There are people in the house.]

In this case one is expecting to get people in a house. The use of positive morpheme /ho/ shows the existence of people in a house.

b) Ha ho batho ka tlung

[There are no people in the house.]

In this case one was expecting to get people in a house, but only found none. The use of neg /ha/ shows the non-existence of people being expected in a house. One was expecting

to find a problem only to find out that no problem that exist. We can even see that the form /ha/ precede the argument whose identity it negates by occurring at the beginning of a clause.

The following two sentences are in the positive such as:

(126a) Ho na le batho ka tlung

[There are people in the house.]

b) Ho teng batho ka tlung

[There are people in the house.]

The meaning of the two sentences above is that of existence. There are people in the house. The first sentence uses the copulative verb /na/ and the second sentence put emphasis of the existence by using the word “teng” (*exist*).

Doke and Mofokeng (1974) a commoner form found in the positive uses /ho na le/ in place of /ho/ this construction, however, is never used with *teng* as copulative base. In the negative, /ho na le/ becomes /ha ho na/. The /le/ in the negative falls off and replaced by /na/ as indicated in (127a) and (127b)

(127a) Ho na le monna ka tlung

[There is a man in the house.]

b) Ha ho na monna ka tlung.

[There is no man in the house.]

4.1.2.1. Non copulative verbs

With regard to non copulative verbs, three types of verbs will be examined. They are intransitive verbs, transitive verbs and ditransitive verbs.

- Intransitive

Fromkin et al (1981) an intransitive verb has two characteristics. First, it is an action verb, expressing a doable activity sleep, etc. Secondly it does not have a direct object receiving the action. A verb is intransitive when the action stays with the verb. It is not

carried across to a receiver. The examples below in (128a), (128b) and (128c) indicate that.

(128a) Ho bana ba robetseng.

[Children are sleeping.]

b) Ho teng bana ba robetseng.

[There are children who are sleeping.]

c) Thabiso o thabile.

[Thabiso is happy.]

In the examples above there is no object receiving the action. It only consists of the subject and the verb. This can be negated with the use of the neg morpheme /ha/ as in (129a) and (129b) below.

(129a) Bana *ha* ba a robala.

[Children are not sleeping.]

b) Thabiso ha a thaba.

[Thabiso is not happy.]

In this example /ha/ is used to negate the suggested referent which *is* 'robala' (*sleep*) and 'thaba' (*happy*). We notice that it is not in the beginning of the clause, but it precedes the finite verb which it negates.

- Transitive

Fromkin et al (1981) transitive verb also has two characteristics such as action verb with a direct object. This type of verb always needs an object, but as for others only need one object while others need two objects. A verb is transitive when the action is carried across to a receiver. The receiver is called the direct object. It answers the question "what" or "whom" after the verb as indicated in 130a below.

(130a) Modisana o bona dikgomo. Ho na le modisana ya bonang dikgomo

[The Shepherd sees cows]. [There is a Shepherd who sees the cows.]

In this example you will notice that the action is carried across the receiver which is the cows in this case. This example can also be negated by the use of the negative morpheme /ha/ as in (130b) below.

b) Modisana ha a bona dikgomo. Ha ho modisana ya boneng dikgomo

[The Shepherd did not see cows]. [There is no Shepherd who saw the cows.]

In this example /ha/ is used to negate the suggested referent which is *dikgomo*. We notice that it is not in the beginning of the clause but it precede the verbal phrase which it negate.

-Ditransitive

According to Fromkin et al (1981) Ditransitive verb is a verb which takes a subject and two objects which refer to a theme and a recipient or require a prepositional phrase as a second complement as indicated in (131a) and (131b).

(131a).Ho na le nkgono ya fang bana dijo.

[There is a granny who gives children food.]

b) Ho na le mme ya phehelang bana dijo

[There is a mother who cooks food for children.]

In this example you will notice that the action is carried to a recipient which is the children and food. Due to the verb *fa* which enforces to have two object, and this can also be negated by the marker /ha/ in the negative form as in (131c) and (131d).

c) Nkgono ha a fa dikgoho poone.

[Granny did not give chickens maize.]

d) Mme ha a phehele bana dijo.

[The mother did not cook food for children.]

In the negative form the negative morpheme /ha/ changes the connecting word /o/ to be /a/ and precede the proposition negated.

4.1.2.2. Copulative verbs

Sesotho Terminology & Orthography No 4 (1992) define copulative as a verb that combines or connect a noun with verb. Due to its function of connecting, in Sesotho it is refer to as *Lehokanyi*, as it is know in English language with a meaning of connecting. Mpeko (1992) further say even though a copulative has categorise of verbs and that is why it is arranged under verbs. A copula is a word that is used to describe its subject, or to equate or liken. According to Guma (1982) and Du Plessis & Visser (1995) in Sesotho we have copulatives or types of copulatives verbs such as /le/, /ke/, /na/, /ba/, /se/ and /a/. It is further said a copulative is word that identifies action or value but is not a verb. It has same meaning of English verb 'is'.

The copula /ke/ may appear with any complement in the following example is the identificative copulative. As in example (132a) and (132b)

(132a) Maria ke morutwana.

[Maria is a student.]

In the negative the copula /ke/ is replaced by a negative verb /se/ with a negative morpheme /ha/.

b) Maria ha se morutwana.

[Maria is not a student.]

The copulative /le/ has a restricted distribution in Sesotho. This verb is a remnant of the old copulative verb. It appears in subordinate or embedded clause where /le/ has to appear in either the participle or relative. As in (133a) and (133b) below.

(133a) Matlo ana a bonahala a le matle.

[These houses seem beautiful.]

The negative verb /se/ always replace the copulative verb /le/

b) Matlo ana a bonahala a se matle.

[These houses do not seem beautiful.]

The clearest indication that /se/ is a copulative verb is seen in a relative clauses. In such sentences the verb always has to appear with a relative marker -ng- and this marker can be found with /se/.

(134) Ngwana eo e seng wa ka.

[A child which is not mine.]

The copulative /se/ may also appear as a prefixal morpheme with the copulative verb /na/

(135) Ha se mosadi ha se na bana.

[She is not a woman if she has no children.]

The possibility of /se/ appearing as a prefixal morpheme is not dependant only on the copulative verb /na/ as in above, but it may be found with any non-copulative verb in moods such as the subjunctive.

(136) Ke batla hore bana ba se nthuse.

[I don't want children to help me.]

The copulative verb /na/

This is the only copulative verb that has the meaning of existence as it has been shown with the examples in non-copulative verb. This verb may only be one type of complement which is a prepositional phrase.

(137a) Mosadi enwa o na le bana ba bangata.

[This woman has many children.]

With a possessive meaning, the preposition /le/ may fall away in the negative.

b) Mosadi enwa ha a na bana ba bangata.

[This woman does not have many children.]

4.1.3. Sub-summary

The meaning of existence in Sesotho is mainly found with the use of the existential AGRS /ho/ as in [Ho teng bana ba nwang jwala]. In constructing the negative function of existence, Sesotho will use the negative morpheme /ha/ as in the sentence like [Ha ho bana ba nwang jwala]. It will also be seen that the meaning of existence will also be found with the copulative verb /na/ as in [Ho na le bana ba nwang jwala]. In constructing the negative function of existence, Sesotho will also employ the negative morpheme /ha/ as in [Ha ho na bana ba nwang jwala].

4.2. Negation by rejection with the negative morpheme /se/ and negation morpheme /ha/.

4.2.1 The meaning of rejection

Schaefer (1984) says this type of negation deals with the rejection of a suggested referent or of a proposition wherein the suggested referent assumes the role of an argument. The negation marker for this type of morpheme is [E seng wena/ ha ke mo rate]. This marker is commonly found as a respond to no/tjhe and yes /E questions. It involves a referent which is actually present in the immediate context, but for one reason or another it is rejected or declined by the speaker.

(138) No, I don't want any lunch.

What is said by Schaefer (1984) in negation by rejection is also found in Sesotho language by employing /se/ and /ha/ as the negative morpheme as indicated in (139) below as stipulated by Swanepoel and Lenake (1979).

(139a) Ha ke batle dijo.

[No, I don't want food.]

In this case we found that the speaker was asked if he would like to have some food, but he rejected the food that he was about to be offered.

b). Thabiso ha ke mmatle.

[I don't like Thabiso.]

In this case the speaker declared that she doesn't like Thabiso for a reason known by her only.

c). Dimpho, e seng wena dula fatshe.

[Not you Dimpho, sit down.]

In this case Dimpho stood up to do something of which she was not asked to do so and the speaker ordered her to sit down because she was not chosen to do so.

4.2.2. The negative morpheme /se/ in Sesotho

According to Khoali et al (1989) the negative morpheme /se/ is distributed under the concept of auxiliary verbs in the negative form. When the negatives are formed the negative morphemes are connected on auxiliary. The negative morpheme /se/ can be placed between connecting word of auxiliary and root of auxiliary and its suffix will be /e/.

(140) Ba **se** hlo**le** ba iketsa botsebanyane.

[They must never act as though they know everything.]

This morpheme is also used in subjunctive mood. In this form we use our negative morpheme /se/ as well as our verb to form negative on this moods. This can also be found in subjunctive mood where it shows what the speaker demonstrates that action can be possible to be done.

The neg morpheme /se/ can also be used in subjunctive mood in negative form as indicated in the examples below.

(141a) Ke lakatsa hore le se thole ha a le botsa.

[I wish that you don't keep quite when he asks you.]

b) Motswadi a ka se swetse ngwana.

[The parent can not disappoint a child.]

It is further said in the first speaker and second speaker the suffix still remains /e/ as well as our negative morpheme /se/.

c) First speaker [Ke se phele] and second speaker [O se phele].

[I should not live]

[They should not live]

It is further said by Doke and Mofokeng (1974) the negatives of substantival copulatives with 3rd person subjects are formed by prefixing /ha se/ without any subjectival concord.

d) Motho eo ha se Morena.

[That person is not a King.]

e) Ha se ka boomo.

[It is not intentionally.]

This morpheme can also be used with tenses such as in present tense, past tense and future tense to demonstrate a command as indicated (141f) and (141g) below.

In Present tense

f) Dula fatshe re se bue.

[Sit down and let us not talk.]

In Future tense

g) Dula fatshe re tle re se bue.

[Sit down so that we won't talk.]

In Past tense

h) Nna ke ne ke se motho.

[I was nobody.]

The instruction is changed into negative by using negative morpheme /se/ as (141f) and (141g) above.

4.2.3. The neg morpheme /se/ and its employment

4.2.3.1. Main verbs [intransitive, transitive, ditransitive]

- Intransitive

An intransitive verb has two characteristics. First, it is an action verb, expressing a doable activity sing, etc. Secondly it does not have a direct object receiving the action. A verb is intransitive when the action stays with the verb. It is not carried across to a receiver.

(142a) Thabo a je.

[Thabo should eat.]

b) Ke yena.

[It's him/her]

In the example above there is no object receiving the action. It only consists of the subject and the verb. This can be negated with the use of the morpheme /ha se/ or /se/ such as in (142c) and (142d) below.

c) Thabo a se je.

[Thabo should not eat.]

In this example /se/ is used to negate the suggested referent which is *je*. We notice that it is not in the beginning of the clause but it precede the finite verb which it negate.

d) Ha se yena

[It is not him/her.]

In the above example there is no object receiving the action and referent which is negated is *yena*.

- Transitive

Transitive verb also has two characteristics such as action verb with a direct object. This type of verb always needs an object, but as for others only need one object while others

need two objects. A verb is transitive when the action is carried across to a receiver. The receiver is called the direct object. It answers the question “what” or “whom” after the verb.

(143a) Thabiso o busa setjhaba.

[Thabiso rules the nation.]

In this example you will notice that the action is carried across the receiver which is *setjhaba* in this case. This example can also be negated by the use of the negative morpheme /se/ as in (143b) below.

b) Thabiso a se se buse setjhaba.

[Thabiso must not rule the nation.]

In this example /se/ is used to negate the suggested referent which is *setjhaba*. We notice that it is not in the beginning of the clause but it precedes the verbal phrase which it negates.

-Ditransitive

Ditransitive verb is a verb which takes a subject and two objects which refer to a theme and a recipient or require a prepositional phrase as a second complement.

(144a) Mme o fa bana dijo.

[Mother gives children food.]

In this example you will notice that the action is carried to a recipient which is the *bana*. Due to the verb *fa* which enforces to have two objects and this can also be negated by the marker /se/ in the negative form as in (144b).

b) Mme a se fe bana dijo.

[Mother must not give the children food.]

In the negative form the negative morpheme /se/ changes the connecting word /o/ to be /a/ and precedes the proposition negated.

4.2.3.2. Copulative verbs

According to Khoali et al (1989) when we form relative copulative where the subject is third speaker in singular form or plural form we still use negative morpheme /ha/ and copulative verb /ke/ changes to /se/ as shown in (95a) below.

(145a) Bontate ke Marena - Bontate ha se marena.
[Men are Kings.] [Men are not Kings.]

They further say, in relative copulative on indicative mood to change it we have to use certain copulatives verbs such as /ba/ and /le/. These are not formed, based on verbs.

It can also be used where relative copulative on indicative mood is formed based on a verb such only. The copulative verb which is used is /le/ and in negative form it reflects as /se/ as indicated in (145b) and (145c):

- b) Yena e ne e le motho- Yena ha se motho.
[He was a person]- [He was not a person.]
c) Yena e le motho- Yena e se motho.
[He as a person]- [He was not a person.]

These point is being supported by Doke and Mofokeng (1974) in saying to form participial of copulatives from qualificatives and adverbs, with all persons and classes as subject, and from substantives with 1st and 2nd person subjects, the requisite subjectival concords are prefixed to the auxiliary (copulative) verb /le/ preceding the word or copulative base in the positive, the auxiliary verb /se/ taking its place in the negative.

- (146a) Leha ke le Morena - Leha ke se Morena
[Even if I am the King]- [Even if I am not the King]
b) Leha ke le mobe- Leha ke se mobe.
[Even if I am ugly]- [Even if I am not ugly]

And the negatives of substantival copulatives with 3rd person subjects are formed by prefixing /e/ to the negative copulative verb /se/.

- (147) Leha motho eo e se Morena.
[Even if that person is not a King.]

4.2.4. Sub-summary

The meaning of rejection in Sesotho is mainly found with the use of the negative morpheme /se/ as in [Motho eo ke Morena]. In constructing the negative function of rejection, Sesotho will use the negative morpheme /se/ and /ha/ as in the sentence like [Motho eo ha se Morena]. It will also be seen that the meaning of rejection will also be found with the different tenses such as Present tense as in [Dula fatshe re se bue]. In constructing the negative function of rejection. Sesotho will also employ the negative morpheme /se/ as in 'Leha ke se mobe'.

4.3. Negation by prohibition with the neg morpheme /se/

4.3.1. The meaning of prohibition

This type of morpheme is typically used in a situations involving exhortation. Following Welmers (1973), we call this the hortative mood, whose basic meaning is that one is obliged to perform some activity or enter some state to which the verb makes reference. This marker is recognised most clearly in command structures, where one wants to order that someone refrain from performing some activity or where one wants to prohibit some activity from taking place.

4.3.2 The negative morpheme /se/ in Sesotho

(148a) Se tsubele mona.
[No smoking here.]

This is a command that no one is allowed to smoke in that area. Usually the prohibition signs are used to emphasise that point.

b) Se kene mona ntle le tumello.
[No entry without permission.]

This is a command that no one is allowed to enter in that area without permission. Anyone doing so does it at his/her own risk. Usually the prohibition signs are used to emphasise that point.

c) Se ka emisa hekeng ka kopo.

[Please do not park in front of the gate.]

This is a command that no one is allowed to stop or park in front of the gate. Anyone doing so does it at his/her own risk. Usually the prohibition signs are used to emphasise that point.

4.3.3. The employment of the neg morpheme /se/ in realizing prohibition

4.3.3.1. Main verbs [intransitive, transitive and ditransitive verbs]

- Intransitive

An intransitive verb has two characteristics. First, it is an action verb, expressing a doable activity sing, etc. Secondly it does not have a direct object receiving the action. A verb is intransitive when the action stays with the verb. It is not carried across to a receiver. This further said that this type of verb has only noun which serves to be a doer of an action. The subject or doer precedes the verb but no object in such sentences.

(149a) Thabo se tsubele moo.

[Do not smoke there Thabo.]

b) Se eme.

[Don't stand.]

The above examples shows a command that Thabo is being refrained from smoking in that area and someone in (149b) is being refrain from stand. The morpheme /se/ is used to show emphasis on a command stated.

- Transitive

Transitive verb also has two characteristics such as action verb with a direct object. This type of verb always needs an object, but as for others only need one object while others need two objects. A verb is transitive when the action is carried across to a receiver. The receiver is called the direct object. It answers the question "what" or "whom" after the verb. It is said that this type of verb has two nouns which serve as the subject or doer of an action and object.

(150a) Thabo o se nwe jwala.

[Thabo must not drink alcohol.]

b) Dibakiso o se dule le Pule.

[Dibakiso must not sit with Pule.]

In example (150a) we found that Thabo used to drink alcohol, but now he is being ordered to stop using it. This is a refraining order against Thabo from using alcohol and in (150b) Dibakiso is being ordered from sitting with Pule for a certain reason's known by the speaker.

-Ditransitive

Ditransitive verb is a verb which takes a subject and two objects which refer to a theme and a recipient or require a prepositional phrase as a second complement. It is said that this type of verb chooses to be followed by two nouns as objects and has ability to can control two nouns and can take the third noun as a subject.

(151a) Mme o se lefe mokgatlo tjehelete.

[Mother do not pay the organisation money.]

b) Malome o se fe bana dipompong.

[Uncle do not give children sweets.]

c) Hlopho o se utswi dikgomo tsa Morena

[Hlopho do not steal the Kings cattle's.]

In the above example the speaker is refraining Mme in (151a) not to pay the organisation money that she might owe it and in (151b) he ordered uncle not to give children sweets that they have asked for it and in (151c) Hlopho is ordered to change his bad behaviour of stealing Kings cattle's.

4.3.3.2. Copulatives

According to Khoali et al (1989) a negative morpheme /se/ can be placed between helping verb and root of helping verb and that will result in a change of its suffix to be /e/ and the copulative /ba/ is used.

(152a) Ba se hlole ba kena ha ka mona.

[They must no longer enter my yard.]

The speaker is ordering people who used to come to him not visit him again. The suffix /e/ in the word *hlole* gives emphasis to an instruction given by the speaker.

They further say this can also be found in moods such as subjunctive mood and also in tenses and a copulative /le/ is used as indicated in the examples in (152b) and (152c) below:

b) Ke lakatsa hore le se thole ha a le botsa.

[I wish you don't keep quiet when he asks you.]

The speaker shows his feeling toward people respond against someone by expressing his wish to them.

c) O se je le yena.

[Do not eat with him.]

The speaker refrains someone from eating with a particular somebody for the specific reasons from the speaker at that particular moment.

Swanepoel and Lenake (1979) says when communicating wishes, requests, commands or instructions, a speaker uses the imperative mood. He approaches what he communicates as an action which requires a definite reaction from the addressee in contrast to the indicative mood in which an utterance usually is a companion. The structure of language communicating imperative and indicative actions differ. Indicative utterance normally includes a subject, its concord, a verb stem, an object and one more adjuncts, or a subject, a copulative morpheme and a complement, or a negative modification of all these with morphemes /ha/ or /ha se/. Imperative utterance on other hand, are directed to one or more persons, the subject concord does not feature, the use of an object concord necessitates the replacement of the ending /a/ with /e/ and /se/ is used as a negative morpheme.

(153) Se lateleng nama!

[Do not follow the flesh!]

This is an instruction in the negative, therefore the speaker uses the negative morpheme /se/. Therefore he also uses the verbal ending /e/ instead of /a/. Due to the fact that he addresses the group of people or congregation therefore he add /ng/ to /e/.

(154) Se lwaneng!

[Don't quarrel /fight!]

The speaker uses an instruction in the negative. This is an ordinary indicative utterance that people should not fight one another.

4.3.4. Sub-summary

The meaning of prohibition in Sesotho is mainly found with the use of the negative morpheme /se/ as in [Se tsubele mona]. In constructing the instruction to function as a command of prohibition, Sesotho will use the negative morpheme /se/ as in the sentence like [Se lwaneng]. It will also be seen that the meaning of prohibition will also be found with the different Imperative mood [Se lateleng nama!]. In constructing the negative function of prohibition. Sesotho will also employ the negative morpheme /se/ as in [Se lateleng nama!].

4.4. Negation by denial with the negative morpheme /ha/ and /se/

4.4.1. The meaning of denial

Schaefer (1984) says this type of morpheme deals with the denial of assertion which, in the most straightforward case, is made in prior context. Its primary function is not to reject that assertion as such, but through a contrary assertion, deny the existence of the declared state of affairs. He further says in denial not the entire proposition is rejected as in example (155) below might be spoken in a context where someone has just asserted that a bicycle has crashed into the fence.

(155) Baesekele ha e ya tjhaisa terata.

[The bicycle did not crash into the fence.]

This can be employed in Sesotho language whereby someone has just asserted that a child burned in a house as stipulated in in example (156) below.

(156) Ngwana ha a tjhella ka tlung.

[The child did not burn in a house.]

Here we found out that not the whole proposition is being rejected or assert that the object does not exist in the immediate context. Instead, it offers an alternative proposition which denies the truth value of the prior assertion, maintaining that just the contrary relationship exists between the prior assertion and the word being described.

4.4.2. The negative morpheme /ha/ and /se/ and its employment

(157a) Ha se Thabo yaka etsang ketso ya mofuta oo.

[It is not Thabo who can do such a thing.]

This statement might be spoken in a context where someone has just asserted that *Thabo* or *yena* has done something terrible. Only to find out that Thabo did not do it.

b) Ha se yena monga taba tseo, ba mo tlama.

[He is not responsible, they framed/accused him.]

c) Ha se Thabiso monga molato oo.

[Thabiso is not responsible for that guilt.]

4.4.3. The employment of the negative morpheme /ha/ and /se/ to express denial

4.4.3.1. Main verbs [intransitive, transitive and ditransitive]

- Intransitive

An intransitive verb has two characteristics. First, it is an action verb, expressing a doable activity sing, etc. Secondly it does not have a direct object receiving the action. A verb is intransitive when the action stays with the verb. It is not carried across to a receiver. This further said that this type of verb has only noun which servers do be a doer of an action. The subject or doer precedes the verb but no object in such sentences.

(158a) Thabo ha se yena a tsubang.

[It is not Thabo who is smoking.]

b) Lesea ha se lona le llang.

[It is not the baby crying.]

In example (158a) the speaker denies the fact that Thabo was the one smoking and in (158b) also denies that the noise is not of the baby crying.

- Transitive

Transitive verb also has two characteristics such as action verb with a direct object. This type of verb always needs an object, but as for others only need one object while others need two objects. A verb is transitive when the action is carried across to a receiver. The receiver is called the direct object. It answers the question “what” or “whom” after the verb. It said that this type of verb has two nouns which server as the subject or doer of an action and object.

(159a) Thabo ha se yena a nweleng jwala.

[Thabo did not drink alcohol.]

b) Dibakiso ha se yena ya balang buka.

[Dibakiso does not read the book.]

-Ditransitive

Ditransitive verb is a verb which takes a subject and two objects which refer to a theme and a recipient or require a prepositional phrase as a second complement. It is said that this type of verb chooses to be followed by two nouns as objects and has ability to can control two nouns and can take the third noun as a subject.

(160a) Ntate ha se yena ya robileng lemati la koloi.

[The father did not break the cars door.]

b) Mpuse ha se yena ya utswitseng tjhelete ya nkgono.

[Mpuse did not steal the granny's money.]

4.4.3.2. Copulatives

According to Doke and Mofokeng (1974) to form copulatives from qualificatives and adverbs, with all persons and classes as subject, and from substantives with 1st and 2nd person

subject, the requisite subjectival concords are prefixed to the unchanged word or word base, in the positive, while in the negative they are preceded by /ha/.

(161) Motho eo o motjha.

[That is young person.]

The negative of the above example is formed by means of the negative morpheme /ha/ followed by the appropriate concord as in (162) below.

(162) Motho eo ha a motjha.

[That person is not young.]

They furthermore say to form a copulatives from substantives with a subject in the 3rd person, the copulative formative /ke/ is prefixed in the positive and / ha se/ in the negative and no subjectival concord appearing. The same positive and negative formatives are used in forming impersonal copulatives from part of speech such as nouns, adverbs and conjunctives as indicated in (163a) and (163b)

(163a) Motho eo ke Morena.

[That person is a King]

The negative of substantival copulatives with 3rd person subjects are formed by prefixing /ha se/ without any subjectival concord as are also those of impersonal copulatives from adverbs and conjunctives as indicated in (163b)

b) Motho eo ha se Morena.

[That person is not a King.]

Furthermore Doke and Mofokeng (1974) says to form participials of copulatives from qualificatives and adverbs, with all persons and classes as subjects, and from substantives with 1st and 2nd person subjects, the requisite subjectival concords are prefixed to the auxiliary verb or copulative /le/ preceding the word or copulative base in the positive, the auxiliary verb /se/ taking place in the negative as indicated in (164a) and (164b) below.

(164a) Leha dinku tseo di le mpe.

[Although those sheep are bad.]

The negative of the above example is formed by substituting /se/ for /le/ in a positive.

b) Leha dinku tseo di se mpe.

[Although those sheep are not bad.]

They further say to form a participial of copulatives from substantive with a subject in the 3rd person, the indefinite concord /e/ is prefixed to the copulative verb /le/, preceding the word copulative base in the positive and to /se/ in the negative as indicated in (165a) and (165b)

(165a) Leha motho eo e le yena.

[Although that person is he.]

The negative of substantival copulatives with 3rd person subjects are formed by prefixing /e/ to the negative copulative verb /se/

b) Leha motho eo e se yena.

[Although that person is not he.]

They further say in the conjugation of the copulatives, the copulative verb /ba/ is commonly employed. This verb basically means “become”, being inceptive in the function. There is further an associative form of the copulative conjugation. This signifies generally “to have”, but it, too, shares a division between the inceptive and the stative aspects, the former employing /ba/ with /le/, the latter the copulative verb /na/ with /le/ as indicated in (166a) where it shows possessing and (166b) which is denying the possessing.

(166a) Seipati o na le ngwana.

[Seipati has a child]

In the negative of those constructions with /na/ the conjunctive /le/ is dropped off as in (166b)

b) Seipati ha na ngwana.

[Seipati doesn't have a child.]

4.4.4. Sub-summary

This kind of negation does not itself reject an entire proposition or assert that an object does not exist in the immediate context. Instead, it offers an alternative proposition, which denies the truth value of the prior assertion, maintaining that just the contrary relationship exists between the prior assertion and the word being described. The meaning of denial in Sesotho is mainly found with the use of the negative morpheme /ha/ as in [Ngwana ha a tjhella ka tlung]. In constructing the denial to function as negative the negative morphemes /ha/ and /se/ are employed as in [Ha se ngwana a tjhelletseng ka tlung]. It will also be seen that the meaning of denial will be found with the qualificatives and adverbs, with all persons and classes as subject, and from substantives with 1st and 2nd person subject, the requisite subjectival concords are prefixed to the unchanged word or word base, in the positive, while in the negative they are preceded by /ha/ as in [Motho eo ha a motjha].

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.0. Introduction

The aim is to give the overall summary, findings and conclusion on the forms and functions of negative morphemes in Sesotho which can perform the functions of negation as stipulated by Schaefer (1984). These functions include non-existence, prohibition, denial and rejection. This include the work of Doke and Mofokeng (1974) which shows how copulatives and non copulatives performs those functions.

5.1. Summary

In summary, we considered the facts about negation which are being highlighted by different authors. Lyons (1932) and others defined negation as a statement of a logical proposition formed by asserting the falsity of a given proposition. This could be shown in a truth functional by Lyons (1932) where he is saying, when p is true $\sim p$ is false and vice versa. This view was further supported by Kate (2000) with the use of the truth table for negation which support the issue of Lyons (1932) and others. Under the same breath Otto (1922) says this concept of negation can also be viewed in early child language development, which is supported by Zanuttini (1997) when saying negation can function as a question marker. This idea of Zanuttini supports that of Otto (1922) when saying, if a child does not want something he will just show by moving the head as to say /no/.

Horn (2010) supports Otto (1922) and others in saying negation imbuing us with the capacity to deny, to contradict or lie and Lindstad (2007) further say this negates parts of or entire sentence or clause and this parts that negates in a sentence or clause are further supported by Bellugi (1967) and others in saying negative sentence take a form of negative element followed by the sentence nucleus.

This leads us to the negation based on stages of child development by Blooms (1970) and others, which among others includes Wode's (1977) who come up with two stages of development. Other than the stages identified by Blooms (1970), Kilma (1966) and others have identified seven stages which includes the following: not-negation, contracted negation, negative pronouns and determiners. For further details on each stage refer back on this chapter 2.

Other than these stages on negation Thomas (1939) come up with types of negation which are lexical, morphological and analytic negation. This are explained further in chapter 2. These stages and types are further supported by Milon (1974) with the establishment of the

sequence of language acquisition as follows: anaphoric, non-anaphoric, internal /be/, internal full verb and suppletive non-imperative /do/.

Douglass (2002) further says negation is a feature of clauses. He identified two main kinds of clause negation as not and no negation. The clause can either be positive or negative. Refer on chapter 2 for further details on this clause negation.

This type of research of forms and functions of negation done by Schaefer (1984) and psycholinguistics has not been done in Sesotho. So, this research is exploring that forms and functions of negation in Sesotho as has been done in North Ibibio.

Negation is a very complex phenomenon that combines, semantically it is not only a denial of a proposition, as it is commonly defined, it can be denial of modality or emphasis. Sometimes it is not merely a denial, it also prohibitive or preventive in function as well as rejection and non-existence.

These leads us to the forms of negation as discussed by Schaefer (1984) and Bloom's (1970) amongst others where they say negation has denial, prohibition, non-existence and finally rejection forms.

As Essien (1985) and www.semioticon.com said in their researches negation is what we are born with and is found in all language. It also involves the cognitive domain as said by Bloom's (1970) in his research and beside the gestures also can express the form of negation as said by Franklin (2007).

This also leads to the functions of negative morphemes in Sesotho which includes non-existence, prohibition, rejection and denial. The meaning of existence in Sesotho is mainly found with the use of the existential subject agreement (AGRS) /ho/ as in [Ho teng bana ba nwang jwala]. In constructing the negative function of existence, Sesotho will use the negative morpheme /ha/ as in the sentence like [Ha ho bana ba nwang jwala]. It will also be seen that the meaning of existence will also be found with the copulative verb /na/ as in [Ho na le bana ba nwang jwala]. In constructing the negative function of existence, Sesotho will also employ the negative morpheme /ha/ as in [Ha ho na bana ba nwang jwala]. In constructing the negative function of rejection, Sesotho will use the negative morpheme /se/ and /ha/ as in the sentence like [Motho eo ha se Morena].

Futhermore the meaning of prohibition in Sesotho is mainly found with the use of the negative morpheme /se/ as in [Se tsubele mona]. In constructing the instruction to function as a command of prohibition, Sesotho will use the negative morpheme /se/ as in the

sentence like 'Se lwaneng'. It will also be seen that the meaning of prohibition will also be found with the different Imperative mood [Se lateleng nama!]. In constructing the function of prohibition. Sesotho will also employ the negative morpheme /se/ as in [Se lateleng nama!]. Unlike prohibition, denial does not itself reject an entire proposition or assert that an object does not exist in the immediate context. Instead, it offers an alternative proposition, which denies the truth value of the prior assertion, maintaining that just the contrary relationship exists between the prior assertion and the word being described and its meaning in Sesotho is mainly found with the use of the negative morpheme /ha/ as in [Ngwana ha a tjhella ka tlung]. In constructing the denial to function as negative the negative morphemes /ha/ and /se/ are employed as in [Ha se ngwana a tjhelletseng ka tlung]. It will also be seen that the meaning of denial will be found with the qualificatives and adverbs, with all persons and classes as subject, and from substantives with 1st and 2nd person subject, the requisite subjectival concords are prefixed to the unchanged word or word base, in the positive, while in the negative they are preceded by /ha/ as in [Motho eo ha a motjha].

5.2 Findings

Based on the information from other researchers such as Lyons (1932) and Blooms (1970) this study has found out that every human being is born with the ability to negate the truth and that every child goes through stages of child development by Blooms (1970). This study has also found out that negation has seven stages as which are not-negation, contracted negation, negative pronouns and determiners, other negative items, the grammatical behaviour of negative items, transferred negation and negation in phrases and non-finite clauses as identified by Klima (1964) and that negation not only has stages, but also the types which are lexical negation, morphological negation and analytical negation as identified by Thomas (1939). This leads us to four different functions of negation which were formally marked in North Ibie by Schaefer (1984). These functions were labelled Rejection, Denial, Prohibition and Nonexistence. We have also found out that those functions as identified by Schaefer (1984) are also found in Sesotho as indicated in the following examples Non-existence [Ha ho motho ka tlung]. [There are no people in the house], Prohibition [Se tsubele mona]. [No smoking here], Rejection [Motho eo ha se Morena]. [That person is not a king] and lastly Denial Ha se Thabiso monga molato oo. [Thabiso is not responsible for that guilt] under the distribution of copulatives and non-copulatives. You could also refer to chapter 4 for more details on this functions. Observing throughout our discussion the placement of these forms relative to the constituents they negate, we have

found that each of the morpheme /ha/, /sa/ and /se/ they precedes, rather than follows, these constituents. We have also found out that if /tjhe/ is used as an interjection it function as a word, but if used as the monomorphemic word is a negative word.

5.3 Conclusion

The aim of this research has been to find out as to whether these three negative morphemes /ha/, /sa/ and /se/ and one negative word /tjhe/, can perform different forms and functions of negation as stipulated by Schaefer and Masgbor (1984) in the Ibie language. This study has argued about what negation is based on different authors and themes. We also argued about functions of negations by Schaefer (1984) and apply psycholinguistics theory as theory to analyse forms and functions of negation in Sesotho language. These forms of negation are determined by the morphemes in every language and that morphemes act to function to deny, prohibit or prevent, reject and show non-existence of a positive proportion that is untrue and of course the use of gestures for hearing impaired and ordinary being can express the negation. Therefore this study concludes in saying functions of negation as identified by Schaefer as Rejection, Prohibition, Denial and Non-existence they also apply in Sesotho as identified by Mokoena (1998) and Doke and Mofokeng (1974). It has the same functions as /ha/, /sa/ and /se/ in terms of negative form or negation. We also observed that by virtue of being an interjective, /tjhe/ it is a word, but as monomorphemic word is a negative word. If used to answer a question it functions as a negative word that negates what is being said by the speaker, but on other cases it functions as a word that emphasize what has been said by the speaker by expressing the feeling or moods. Therefore this study concludes in saying /tjhe/ has a dual status.

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